The Library
of the
University of North Carolina

Collection of North Caroliniana

C378
UJ3
v.14
1934/35

C378
UJ3
v.14
1934/3

N.C.University.Extension division

DATE
24Aug'3

Library Bureau

This book must not be taken from the Library building.

24Aug'38R

LUNC-5M Ja.35
OP-10915

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2012 with funding from
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

http://www.archive.org/details/universityofnc1419341935

v.14, no.1 not published

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
EXTENSION BULLETIN

VOL. XIV SEPTEMBER, 1934 NO. 2

FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

Compiled by
E. R. RANKIN

Debate Handbook

CHAPEL HILL MCMXXXIV
THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS

EXTENSION BULLETINS

Vol. III, No. 14. *How to Know and Use the Trees.* W. C. Coker and Enid Matherly. Price 50c.

Vol. IV, No. 12. *Children of Old Carolina.* Historical Pageant for Children. Ethel T. Rockwell. Price 25c.

Vol. VII, No. 9. *Special Legal Relations of Married Women in N. C. as to Property, Contracts, and Guardianship.* Mary P. Smith. Price 25c.

Vol. VII, No. 11. *The Child and the Home.* E. R. Groves. Price 25c.

Vol. VII, No. 13. *High School Library Standards.* Price 25c.

Vol. VIII, No. 5. *The World Court.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 25c.

Vol. VIII, No. 6. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1928. Price 50c.

Vol. VIII, No. 7. *Scenery and Lighting for School and Little Theatre Stages.* Samuel Selden. Price 50c.

Vol. VIII, No. 8. *Studies in Taxation.* North Carolina Club Yearbook. 1927-1928. Price 50c.

Vol. IX, No. 4. *The Classification of Property for Taxation.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. IX, No. 5. *Country Life in North Carolina.* North Carolina Club Yearbook. 1928-1929. Price 25c.

Vol. IX, No. 8. *Plays for Schools and Little Theatres.* Frederick Koch and Nettina Strobach. Price 25c.

Vol. X, No. 2. *Contemporary Industrial Processes.* North Carolina Club Yearbook. 1929-1930. Price 75c.

Vol. X, No. 4. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1929. Price 50c.

Vol. X, No. 5. *Independence for the Philippines.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. X, No. 9. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1930. Price 50c.

Vol. XI, No. 3. *Compulsory Unemployment Insurance.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 25c.

Vol. XI, No. 6. *A Two-Year Course in Spanish, with Suggestions for a Third Year.* Price 25c.

Vol. XI, No. 7. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1931. Price 50c.

Vol. XII, No. 4. *Taxation in North Carolina.* Price 25c.

Vol. XII, No. 5. *The Sales Tax.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. XIII, No. 3. *Radio Control and Operation.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. XIII, No. 6. *Correspondence Instruction.* 1934-1935. Free.

Vol. XIV, No. 2. *Federal Aid to Education.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

MONEY ORDERS, CHECKS, OR STAMPS ACCEPTED
ADDRESS: UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION,
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN
VOL. XIV SEPTEMBER, 1934 NO. 2

FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

Compiled by
E. R. RANKIN

Debate Handbook

Published six times a year, July, September, October, November, January, and March, by the University of North Carolina Press. Entered as second-class matter October 19, 1921, Chapel Hill, N. C.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

THE HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING UNION 5

Review of Contests Held 5

Regulations 9

QUERY: RESOLVED, That the United States should adopt the policy of extending federal aid to general public education 12

Explanations and Limitations 12

GENERAL REFERENCES 14

Editorial Research Reports 14

J. Harold Goldthorpe, The American School Board Journal 17

E. C. Buehler, N. U. E. A. Debate Handbook 20

R. A. Kent, School and Society 22

Editorial, The Charlotte Observer 24

AFFIRMATIVE REFERENCES 26

William G. Carr, N. U. E. A. Debate Handbook 26

George F. Zook, School and Society 32

William F. Russell, School and Society 38

George D. Strayer 42

William F. Russell, School and Society 46

Report, National Advisory Committee on Education 51

Ross A. Collins, Congressional Record 53

Austin F. MacDonald, Annals of the American Academy 56

Editorial, High School Journal 58

Paul R. Mort, The Nation's Schools 60

William John Cooper, Scribner's Magazine 62

24481

NEGATIVE REFERENCES 63
Alexander Inglis, Educational Record 63
John J. Tigert, The Nation's Schools 69
George Johnson, N. U. E. A. Debate Handbook 75
Paul C. Stetson, The Nation's Schools 80
C. R. Mann, The Educational Review 83
Editorial, The Nation's Schools 86
Report, National Advisory Committee on Education 88
James H. Ryan, Current History 90
Alfred E. Smith, The Nation's Schools 92
R. L. Wilbur, School and Society 94

BIBLIOGRAPHY 96

THE HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING UNION

REVIEW OF CONTESTS HELD

The High School Debating Union was organized among the high schools of North Carolina by the Dialectic and Philanthropic literary societies of the University of North Carolina during the school year 1912-13. The query that year was, RESOLVED, *That the constitution of North Carolina should be so amended as to allow women to vote under the same qualifications as men.* Ninety schools participated in the first annual state-wide debate, which was held on February 22, 1913. Sixteen schools won both debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill for the final contest. The Pleasant Garden high school, represented by Grady Bowman and S. C. Hodgin, on the affirmative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on March 7, 1913.

One hundred and fifty high schools took part in the second annual state-wide debate on March 20, 1914, on the subject, RESOLVED, *That the constitution of North Carolina should be so amended as to allow the initiative and referendum in state-wide legislation.* Forty-one schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill for the final contest. The Winston-Salem high school, represented by Charles Roddick and Clifton Eaton, on the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 3, 1914. During the school year 1913-14 the High School Debating Union was incorporated as a regular feature of the work of the University Extension Division.

Two hundred and fifty schools took part in the third annual state-wide contest on March 26, 1915, on the query, RESOLVED, *That the United States should adopt the policy of subsidizing its merchant marine engaged in foreign trade.* Fifty schools won both debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill for the final contest. The Wilson high school, represented by Misses Lalla Rookh Fleming and Ethel Gardner, on the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 9, 1915.

The query which was discussed in the fourth annual contest, which was held on March 31, 1916, was, RESOLVED, *That the United States should adopt the policy of greatly enlarging its navy.* Three hundred and twenty-five schools enrolled for the state-wide debate. Sixty-eight schools won both of their debates and sent their speakers to Chapel Hill for the final contest. Miss Myrtle Cooper and Boyd Harden, speakers on the affirmative for the Graham high school, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 14, 1916.

Three hundred and thirty-one schools participated in the fifth annual state-wide debate, which was held on March 31, 1917, on the query, RESOLVED, *That the federal government should own and operate the railways.* Seventy-four schools won both of their debates and sent their debaters to Chapel Hill for the final contest. The Waynesville high school, represented by Vinson Smathers and Roy Francis, on the

affirmative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 20, 1917.

The sixth annual contest centered around the query, RESOLVED, *That Congress should enact a law providing for the compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes.* Three hundred schools participated in the triangular debates on March 29, 1918. Sixty-six schools won both debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill to enter the final contest. Thomas Burton and Will Anderson, representing the Wilson high school, on the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 12, 1918.

One hundred and eighty schools enrolled for the seventh annual state-wide debate on April 4, 1919, on the query, RESOLVED, *That the United States government should adopt a policy requiring one year of military training for all able-bodied men before they reach the age of 21.* Forty-one schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to the University for the final contest. The Durham high school, represented by Miss Aura Holton and Leo Brady, on the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on May 2, 1919.

Two hundred schools participated on April 14, 1920, in the eighth annual state-wide debate on the query, RESOLVED, *That the United States should adopt a policy of further material restriction of immigration.* Forty-four schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to the University to take part in the final contest. The Asheville high school, represented by Arthur Kale and Clifton Ervin, on the affirmative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 28, 1920.

The ninth annual contest revolved around the query, RESOLVED, *That the policy of collective bargaining through trade unions should prevail in American industry.* Fifty schools won both of their debates in the triangular contest on April 1, 1921, and sent their teams to the University for the final contest. Miss Eunice Hutchins and Ludlow Rogers, of the Durham high school, representing the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 15, 1921.

Two hundred and fifty schools took part in the tenth annual state-wide debate on March 24, 1922, on the query, RESOLVED, *That the United States should enter the League of Nations.* Sixty schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill for the final contest. The Durham high school, represented by Linwood Hollowell and Freeman Twaddell, on the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 7, 1922.

Two hundred and fifty schools participated in the eleventh annual state-wide debate on March 31, 1923, on the query, RESOLVED, *That Congress should provide for the enforcement of decisions of the Railroad Labor Board.* Sixty schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to the University for the final contest. The Elizabeth City high school, represented by Misses Ellen Mellick and Mary Dozier, on the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 13, 1923.

Two hundred and fifty schools took part in the twelfth annual state-

wide debate on March 28, 1924, on the query, RESOLVED, *That the inter-allied war debts should be cancelled.* Seventy-one schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to the University for the final contest. The Wilson high school, represented by Miss Catherine Ware and Fred Carr, on the affirmative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 11, 1924.

Two hundred and thirty-five schools entered the thirteenth annual state-wide contest on March 27, 1925. The query was, RESOLVED, *That North Carolina should ratify the port terminals and water transportation act.* Sixty-five schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill for the final contest. Miss Catherine Ware and Fred Carr, of the Wilson high school, representing the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 10, 1925.

Two hundred and twenty-four schools took part in the fourteenth annual state-wide debate on April 2, 1926, on the query, RESOLVED, *That North Carolina should levy a state tax on property to aid in the support of an eight months school term.* Sixty-seven schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to the University for the final contest. The Winston-Salem high school, represented by Misses Mell Efird and Loretto Carroll, on the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 16, 1926.

Two hundred and twenty-three schools participated in the fifteenth annual state-wide debate on April 1, 1927, on the query, RESOLVED, *That Congress should enact the Curtis-Reed bill, providing for a federal department of education.* Sixty-seven schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to the University. Harry Gump and Henry Biggs, of the Greensboro high school, representing the affirmative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 15, 1927.

One hundred and ninety-five schools entered the sixteenth annual state-wide debate which was held on April 6, 1928. The query for that year was, RESOLVED, *That Congress should enact the McNary-Haugen farm relief bill.* Fifty schools won both of their debates and sent their representatives to the Universty. The Washington Collegiate Institute, represented by Henry Roper and Hal Hopper, on the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 20, 1928.

One hundred and ninety-six schools participated in the seventeenth annual state-wide contest on April 5, 1929, on the query, RESOLVED, *That the United States should join the World Court.* Fifty-nine schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill. Floyd Adams and Shearod Crumpler, of the Roanoke Rapids high school, representing the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 19, 1929.

One hundred and eighty-six schools took part in the eighteenth annual state-wide contest on April 4, 1930, on the query, RESOLVED, *That North Carolina should adopt the proposed constitutional amendment, authorizing the classification of property for taxation.* Fifty-one schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to the University. The Goldsboro high school, represented by Miss Eleanor Bizzell and Ezra

Griffin, on the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 18, 1930.

Two hundred and eighteen schools entered on April 3, 1931, the nineteenth annual state-wide contest on the question, RESOLVED, *That the United States should grant immediate independence to the Philippines.* Fifty-two schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to the University. Miss Marian Weil and Ezra Griffin, of the Goldsboro high school, representing the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 17, 1931.

Two hundred and fourteen schools took part in the twentieth annual state-wide contest on April 1, 1932, on the query, RESOLVED, *That the United States should adopt a system of compulsory unemployment insurance.* Fifty-five schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill. The Curry high school, represented by Miss Katherine Keister and Nash Herndon, on the negative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 15, 1932.

Two hundred and fifteen schools entered the twenty-first annual state-wide debate on March 31, 1933, on the query, RESOLVED, *That North Carolina should adopt the sales tax as a feature of its state system of revenue.* Fifty-one high schools won both of their debates and sent their representatives to Chapel Hill. The Broughton high school, of Raleigh, represented by Miss Katherine Martin and Wade Marr, Jr., on the affirmative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 14, 1933.

Two hundred high schools participated in the twenty-second annual state-wide high school debate on March 30, 1934 on the query, RESOLVED, *That the United States should adopt the essential features of the British system of radio control and operation.* Forty-five high schools won both of their debates and sent their teams to the University. The Thomasville high school, represented by Miss Katharine Covington and A. C. Lovelace, Jr., on the affirmative, won the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate on April 13, 1934.

QUERY FOR 1934-35

The query which will be discussed this year by the high schools holding membership in the High School Debating Union is, RESOLVED, *That the United States should adopt the policy of extending federal aid to general public education.* The high school debating leagues of thirty-three states will discuss the subject of federal aid to education in their spring contests during this scholastic year. It is the hope of the central committee that the twenty-third annual state-wide debating contest, dealing with the important question as to whether the federal government should adopt the policy of extending aid to general public education, will prove one of the most successful contests which have yet been held. The attention of debaters and of all others interested in the contest is directed to the statement of the query, with the accompanying explanations and limitations of the meaning of the query, on page 12 of this handbook.

The thanks of the compilers of this debate handbook are extended

to the publishers and authors who very kindly gave permission for the reprinting of articles included in the handbook.

REGULATIONS

1. The University Extension Division of the University of North Carolina will suggest a query, to be discussed on a given date by the schools entering the Union.

2. All secondary schools of North Carolina, however supported, offering regularly organized courses of study above the seventh grade, and not extending in their scope and content beyond a standard high school or secondary school course, shall be eligible for membership in the High School Debating Union.

3. The schools accepting this offer and thus becoming members of the Union shall be arranged by the committee into groups of three for triangular debates, the status and standards of the schools, their proximity, accessibility, and convenience of location to be considered in forming the groups.

4. Each school of every triangular group shall agree to furnish two debating teams of two members each, the one to uphold the affirmative side of the query, and the other to defend the negative side.

5. The members of the debating teams must all be bona fide students of the schools they represent. To be bona fide students, they must be in regular attendance at the time of the debate, and they must have been in regular attendance for at least 30 per cent of the school year up to and including the date of the debate, and they must have made passing grades on a majority of the studies in some regularly organized course of study.

6. No post graduate of a school—that is, no student who has already finished a four-year high school course—shall be eligible to represent his school in the contest. This shall not serve, however, to debar those students who are in upper classes in school systems modeled after the junior-senior plan, unless these students have already been graduated from, or awarded diplomas by, the schools which they are now attending or other high schools. If such students have been graduated already, or awarded diplomas, they are, of course, ineligible to compete.

7. No student who became 21 years of age on or before September 1, 1934, shall be eligible to represent his school in the high school debates of the High School Debating Union.

8. The usual plan of procedure for the triangular contests will be for the affirmative teams to debate at home and for the negative teams to visit. However, whenever a plan for holding the debates on neutral grounds is favored by at least two member schools of a given triangle, then the debates of that triangle will be held on neutral territory.

9. The schools themselves shall select and agree upon the judges of the local contests.

10. Each speaker shall have twenty minutes at his disposal, not more than fifteen of which shall be used in the first speech.

11. In the debates of the High School Debating Union, the order of the speakers in the first speech shall be: affirmative, negative, affirma-

tive, negative. The order of speakers on rejoinder shall be: affirmative, negative, affirmative, negative. It is understood, however, that there is no objection to a reversal of this order of speakers on rejoinder in any given local debate, provided that such a reversal of order shall have been definitely agreed to beforehand by responsible authorities of both schools which are concerned in the given local debate.

12. The schools which shall win both of their debates shall be entitled to send their teams to the University to compete in the final contest for the Aycock Memorial Cup. It is understood, however, that the committee may arrange for a second triangular contest between the winning schools throughout the state prior to the final contest at the University, should this plan appear to be necessary under the circumstances. In this case, only those schools whose teams should win both debates in the second contest would be entitled to representation at Chapel Hill.

13. In the event that one school of a triangle drops out and the committee at Chapel Hill is unable to secure a school to take its place, then the two teams remaining shall hold a dual debate with one another, each school sending its team on the negative to the other.

14. In the event that two schools of a triangle drop out of the Union and the committee is unable to secure schools to take their places, then the remaining school shall be declared the winner over the others by their default.

15. The school having the strongest team on the affirmative side of the query and the school having the strongest team on the negative side shall be entitled to contest publicly at the University for the Aycock Memorial Cup. (The strongest team on each side of the query is to be determined by means of preliminary contests in debate at Chapel Hill.)

16. The school which shall win the debate, thus finally held, shall have its name inscribed on the Aycock Memorial Cup, together with the names of its two winning representatives.

17. Any school which shall win the final contest for two years in succession shall have the cup for its own property.

18. All contestants are expected to prepare their own speeches with legitimate assistance of the teachers, principals, or superintendents in their school systems. Legitimate assistance is interpreted to mean oral advice, suggestions, discussions, and criticisms.

SUGGESTIONS AS TO JUDGES

1. The judges should be disinterested parties to the success of either team and, so far as possible, should be non-local.

2. They should sit apart during the debate.

3. They should judge the contest as a debate, and at its conclusion should vote "Affirmative" or "Negative" on the merits of the debate. They should not consider the merits of the question.

4. Each judge should sign and seal his vote and deliver it, through an usher, to the presiding officer who should publicly open the votes and announce the decision.

5. Before the debates begin, a copy of these suggestions should be given to each judge for his guidance.

ORIGINALITY OF DEBATES

The committee realizes that "the debate which a speaker produces should be his very best; but it should under no circumstances be better than his best; that the success of the Union will be seriously hindered unless in each instance the speech of a debater represents his own individual work." It wishes, therefore, to ask the principals to give this matter their very careful consideration and to note particularly regulation 18. In cases where necessary, the principals in the various triangles should take such action among themselves as they deem necessary. Great care should be taken by all means to see to it that wherever a speaker uses any quoted material, proper credit is given in his speech to the source from which the quotation was derived.

For further information, address

E. R. RANKIN

Secretary, High School Debating Union, Chapel Hill, N. C.

QUERY

Resolved, That the United States should adopt the policy of extending federal aid to general public education.

Explanations and Limitations

For the purpose of clarity of issue in the debates of the High School Debating Union of North Carolina, the following explanations and limitations of the meaning of the query are distinctly set down:

1. It is understood that the statement of the query, as this is given above, contemplates that Congress should appropriate annually a sum of at least one hundred million dollars for the purpose of aiding general public education, elementary and secondary, in the various states. This annual appropriation would be distributed to the different states by a federal agency or commission. The distribution would be made through the use of an objective method—each state, for example, would be allotted its share of the total annual appropriation, in accordance with the proportion which its average daily attendance record bears to the total average attendance records of all the states for the preceding year or in accordance with the proportion which its population of school age bears to the total population of school age of all the states or in accordance with a combination of these two methods of distribution. The exact objective method for use in the distribution of this appropriation would be left to the discretion of the federal agency or commission entrusted with administering the funds. Each state, having received its proportionate share of federal funds under the objective method of distribution in use, would place this amount in support of its own program of general public education, elementary and secondary.

2. It is understood that, while the affirmative is to advocate the program outlined above, the affirmative may also advocate, if it wishes to do so, a more extensive system of federal aid to education than this. The affirmative may advocate the granting of a larger sum annually than that mentioned above, the total sum to be distributed in accordance with the method outlined; or the affirmative may advocate the distribution of additional sums (that is, sums which are in addition to the one hundred million dollars outlined above, to be distributed on an objective basis) in accordance with any method of distribution which it chooses. The negative should be prepared to oppose the plan outlined in paragraph (1) and it should also be prepared to oppose a more extensive plan of federal aid, if the affirmative should advocate in its debates a more extensive plan than that outlined in paragraph (1).

3. It is understood that the federal aid for vocational education, as this has been granted in the past to the different states by the federal government and as it is now granted, does not fulfill the requirements of this query for federal aid to general public education. The program of aid for vocational education is in the nature of aid for special purposes and is not in the nature of aid for general public education,

as this topic is considered under the query. The federal funds which are granted for vocational education under the "fifty-fifty" basis now in use are not to be considered as a part of the proposed appropriation of one hundred million dollars, or more, as this is referred to in paragraph (1).

4. It is understood that any question as to the constitutionality of the proposed plan is to be waived from the discussions in the debates of the High School Debating Union of North Carolina.

GENERAL REFERENCES

FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

(Excerpts from "Federal Aid to Education," Editorial Research Reports for August 20, 1934, prepared by Joel I. Seidman.)

The inability of the states to maintain their educational systems in the face of lower revenues is the ground upon which the argument for federal assistance fundamentally rests. Banks, railroads, business, agriculture, the destitute, and many other elements in the life of the nation have received federal aid in the emergency, and the advocates of aid to education insist that this activity deserves assistance as much as any other. The education of the rising generation, it is said, is too important a function to allow it to be jeopardized by the lack of funds in any state, and the problem is a national one in that boys and girls who are denied educational opportunities in their native states may later cross state lines and become social problems in states that have adequately discharged their own educational responsibilities.

In an address to the National Education Association on July 2, 1934, former Commissisoner of Education Zook asserted that the federal government should assist education because its system of taxation had deprived local governments of sources of revenue which might have been tapped for educational purposes, and because the unequal distribution of wealth throughout the country resulted in unequal educational opportunity. Taxes on real estate, which in the past have borne almost the entire burden of county and local school appropriations, are no longer adequate, Zook said, and the federal government, by levying such taxes as those on incomes, inheritances, liquor, tobacco, and gasoline, had to a considerable extent prevented resort to these sources of income by the states. If the federal government continues to levy such taxes, he said, some proportion of the proceeds should be returned to the states for the support of state and local functions, including education.

Opponents of federal aid assert that federal financial assistance would inevitably lead to federal control of education. This, they argue, is undesirable because it would vest control in a bureaucracy far removed from and unresponsive to the local population. School boards locally elected, it is said, far better reflect the needs and wishes of the community, and fail of reelection if they prove unsatisfactory. Moreover, federal control would discourage experimentation, and thereby slow up educational progress.

Aid during the emergency is thought undesirable because, once the precedent is established, the pressure to continue federal assistance as a permanent policy will prove irresistible. Even as a purely emergency measure its disadvantages would outweigh its benefits, for it would weaken the sense of local responsibility. The federal constitution wisely reserved education to the states, it is said, and sound public policy requires that there be no tampering with this arrangement. It is argued,

moreover, that federal aid would penalize the wealthier states for the benefit of those less fortunate, and place unfair burdens upon the states that have conserved their resources and maintained their credit. To attempt to equalize educational opportunities throughout the United States is thought both impossible and unwise.

The belief that federal control must inevitably accompany federal support is shared by John J. Tigert, former United States commissioner of education. "My experience in handling federal subsidies for education under the limited act now in existence," Tigert said, "taught me that you must have federal control and interference or you will have misappropriation of funds and waste."

The National Advisory Committee on Education, in its exhaustive report on "Federal Relations to Education" submitted in 1931, recommended that there be no interference by federal agencies with the autonomy of the states in matters of education. Future grants to the states, it was urged, should be in aid of education in general, to be spent by each state as it might desire. The matching of federal money grants with state and local funds, whether to be used for general or special educational purposes, was discouraged.

The depression has placed unprecedented burdens upon the educational system by sharply reducing available revenue at a time when enrollment, particularly in the expensive upper grades, was increasing. Because of the widespread demand for lower tax rates, and also because of reduced assessment valuations and greater tax delinquency, the 1933-34 budgets for schools were about $200,000,000 below the expenditures of the previous year. Schools have been closed and terms shortened, services and facilities restricted, salaries of teachers reduced, administrative expenses lowered, and building programs curtailed. By December, 1933, 259 school districts in 29 states had defaulted on their bonds. State responsibility for education has been recognized to a greater extent than ever before.

Although educational budgets were being sharply reduced in 1932, in November of that year only 40 public schools in the nation were actually closed. By the autumn of 1933, however, the situation had become acute. The office of education collected information at the beginning of December as to conditions in the states.

"We found," Dr. Zook told the house committee on education, "that 770 schools had been closed during the year without any attention being given to school facilities for the children that were concerned in those schools. There were many other schools that had been closed, but some opportunities, in one way or another, had been provided to take care of those children. In these 770 schools there were enrolled approximately 175,000 children. We found in the same way that there were approximately 1,500 other schools with an attendance that ran very high, which would be in session about three months or less during this current year. We found approximately 11,000 other schools in the country that were to be in session somewhere between three and six months during this

current year." Particularly in the south and middle west, Zook concluded, a fairly large proportion of the school population either had not been in school at all this year or had been in school for only a restricted period.

About $1,723,300,00 was spent for schools in 1933-34, whereas five years ago, with 675,000 fewer pupils, expenditures had been more than $500,000,000 greater. School expenditures per pupil dropped in the same period from $90.22 to $66.53, and the average daily cost per pupil fell from 62 cents in 1931-32 to 49 cents the following year.

The scarcity of funds reduced expenditures for the maintenance of school buildings, sites, and equipment to $154,000,000 in 1933, whereas immediately preceding the depression an average of $375,000,000 had been spent annually for such purposes. Although more than 400,000 pupils in city schools and a much larger number in rural areas lack proper buildings, appropriations for the erection of schools have been reduced by three-fourths in the last five years. The budget for books was cut by one-third in 1933-34. Expenditures for music, domestic arts, physical education, health supervision, and the like have been drastically reduced and in many instances eliminated, on the theory that these were educational frills and luxuries that could not be afforded when money for more essential studies was lacking.

The teachers have suffered during the depression through unemployment, reduced salaries, payment in warrants of doubtful value, and increasing teaching loads. The curtailment of school programs has reduced the teaching staff in the public schools of less than college grade by between 40,000 and 60,000 teachers since 1930. In addition, the number of teachers in colleges has been reduced by about 5,700 in the last two years. The number of certified teachers who are out of work today is estimated to be 200,000. The combined result of a decreased number of teachers and a larger enrollment has been to increase materially the average size of classes. In five states there are now more than 40 pupils to each teacher.

More than 200,000 teachers, or about one-fourth of the total number employed, are receiving yearly pay of less than the $750 minimum paid to factory workers under the terms of the President's reemployment agreement. About 85,000 of these teachers are paid less than $450 a year. The research division of the National Education Association reported in April, 1934, that unpaid teachers' salaries amounted to more than $55,000,000, and that outstanding salary warrants reached a total of more than $70,000,000. In at least 18 states this last year teachers were being paid in warrants cashable only at discounts of from 5 to 40 per cent. In only 8 of 29 states investigated in February, 1934, were all salaries being paid in cash when due. Salaries for white teachers in some states in the south and west have fallen to $30 or $40 a month, whereas among Negro teachers one out of every thirteen receives $25 a month or less.

George D. Strayer of Columbia University, representing the American

Council on Education at hearings before a senate committee in January, 1933, estimated that teachers' salary budgets for the entire country were reduced from $774,500,000 in 1931-32 to $735,500,000 in 1932-33.

A study by W. G. Carr, director of the research bureau of the National Education Association, shows, on the basis of 1930 figures, considerable disparity between the ability of the various states to support education, and similar differences in the expenditures per child made for that purpose. Income per child ranged from $930 a year in Mississippi to $6,369 in the District of Columbia. Georgia, with $35, spent the smallest sum on education per child in average daily attendance, whereas New York, with $192, made the largest expenditures.

The convention of the National Education Association, held at Washington early in July, 1934, recommended that a direct federal grant of not less than $500,000,000 be made to the public schools of the country. This grant, the convention declared, should not entail any federal control over schools, and should be distributed to all public school districts in accordance with average daily attendance and the lack of adequate tax resources in the community.

The National Education Association's Department of Superintendence at its 1934 convention called for federal aid at the uniform rate of $11 per child, based on the average school attendance in the country, with some adjustment to the benefit of areas with small populations.

John K. Norton of Columbia University, chairman of the joint commission on the emergency in education of the Department of Superintendence and the National Education Association, asserted that millions of children were being provided with educational facilities inadequate to equip them to deal with the problems that they will have to face. Emergency relief should not be limited to closed schools, Norton said, for the present educational crisis is an all-pervasive one that has affected cities as well as rural areas.

WHO WILL PAY THE FEDERAL AID?

(Excerpts from an article by J. Harold Goldthorpe in the American School Board Journal, volume 88, pages 23, 24, 73, May, 1934.)

With the imminence of federal aid to the schools in some form, it is pertinent to examine two rather common beliefs concerning the sources of federal tax revenues. One of these is that federal revenue is paid by the residents of the states and hence is in effect a tax upon the people of a particular state, and the other belief—related to the first—is the prevalent notion that the population of certain states, particularly New York, contribute to the federal treasury an undue proportion of the federal tax revenue. It is the purpose of this article to present certain facts concerning the sources of federal tax revenues and to consider other aspects which bear upon these two beliefs.

Prior to the revenue act of 1932 federal tax revenues were derived from four major sources—the corporation income tax, the personal

income tax, customs duties, and the tobacco taxes. The proceeds from these four taxes accounted for 95 per cent of the federal government's tax income in the fiscal year ending June, 1930, which was the "peak" year of the yield of these taxes. For the fiscal year 1933 the revenue yield of these four shrank to two-fifths of that for the year 1930; the yield from the income taxes being less than one-third of the revenue for the earlier year. For the latter year (1933) the revenue from these four sources constituted 75 per cent of the total taxes collected. It is of interest to note that the tax source which showed the least shrinkage was the revenue from the tobacco taxes. To compensate for the loss in income from these sources the revenue act of 1932 provided for a series of manufacturers' excise taxes on a variety of commodities ranging from a tax of 2 cents per 1,000 matches to a tax of 1 cent per gallon of gasoline. For the fiscal year 1933 the yield from these 32 manufacturers' excise taxes was approximately 244 million dollars, of which amount the gasoline tax contributed 125 million dollars.

In the last analysis the individual citizen pays the federal tax. He pays it directly upon his own personal income; he pays it indirectly as a purchaser of goods on which import duties are levied, as a consumer of tobacco products, as the consumer of commodities on which excise taxes are levied, and as the stockholder of a corporation which has a taxable net income. The federal government collects its tax revenues through two agencies, the bureau of customs and the bureau of internal revenue. Each of these bureaus maintains offices in various cities and receives payments from individuals and corporations for certain areas. From the reports of these districts the treasury department publishes annually a report showing by states and sources the collections of all federal tax revenues. As a result of this practice the various states appear to be credited with these payments. Unfortunately this procedure has given rise to the belief that the federal revenue reported for each state is a contribution toward the support of the activities of the federal government and is paid by the inhabitants of that state.

While federal taxes are frequently paid at the source in order to simplify administration and to reduce collection costs, they are borne ultimately by the citizens and consumers of goods out of whose income the taxes are paid. For example, while the customs duties upon an imported commodity are paid at the port of entry in the first instance by the importer, this duty is added to the price and is finally paid by the purchaser. Thus, when a New York City importer buys a Paris gown for $60 and pays a customs duty of 50 per cent, the cost on which he bases his profit and price is then $90. On this transaction New York state is credited with the customs duty, but if the gown is purchased in Denver, the tax is paid, in reality, by a Colorado resident. Because of the concentration of the foreign-trade activity, the New York City customs district was credited with over 50 per cent of the total amount of $250,501,722 derived from customs receipts in 1933.

Personal income taxes paid by individuals with taxable incomes are

paid at the office of the collector of internal revenue nearest the place of residence or business. On the other hand, a corporation pays its net income tax in the state where its main office is located, which is frequently, though not necessarily, the state under whose laws the corporation received its charter. By way of illustration, the General Motors Corporation, which secured its charter under the laws of Delaware, maintains general offices in Detroit, New York City, and Wilmington, yet pays its income tax in Michigan. For the year 1931 its income tax of approximately 14 million dollars was credited to the state of Michigan, although the tax was actually the contribution of its 313,117 stockholders residing throughout the country. Similarly, the Union Pacific railroad with a charter from the state of Utah, conducting its business in eleven western states and without a mile of track east of the Missouri river, paid its 1930 corporation income tax of three and a half million dollars through its New York office. In this manner New York state is credited with the tax though it is derived from operations halfway across the continent.

Because the corporation net income tax has, since 1925, been the largest single source of tax revenue and because of certain aspects regarding its incidence, it is well to give it further consideration. In general, economists have pointed out that this tax is shifted only in unusual circumstances and that it is actually borne by the corporation's stockholders rather than by the consumers. Accordingly, its burden is distributed throughout the population in proportion to the stockholders' equities in the net income of those corporations with taxable incomes.

The fourth important source of federal revenue is the group of tobacco taxes. From the standpoint of yield the cigarette taxes are the most important of the twelve different taxes on tobacco and tobacco manufactures; in the year 1933 they accounted for over four-fifths of the revenue from the tobacco group. On most of the well-known brands the tax is approximately 6 cents for a package of twenty cigarettes, only slightly less than one-half of the customary retail price.

Because the major part of the manufacture of tobacco products is carried on in Kentucky, North Carolina, and Virginia, these three states are credited with 84 per cent of the total amount of $402,739,059 collected from the tobacco taxes. Moreover, in this same year these three states contributed 23 per cent of the total amount of federal internal revenue, of which proportion the tobacco taxes constituted over 90 per cent. When the federal tax receipts credited to North Carolina and Virginia are considered, the misleading impression of these figures is apparent. Thus, in 1933, North Carolina with 2.6 per cent of the nation's population and 1.5 per cent of its wealth is credited with 11.9 per cent of the total federal tax revenues. Similarly, Virginia contributed 5.9 per cent of the federal revenues, although it has only 2.0 per cent of the total population and but 1.6 per cent of the national wealth. Actually, while these revenues are collected at source and are credited to the states wherein

the factories are located, the tax burden is borne by the users of tobacco products throughout the entire country.

From the brief analysis of the sources of the federal government's tax revenues and the consideration of the incidence of the various federal taxes, it seems reasonable to conclude that the residents of all states pay the federal tax revenues directly or indirectly, and that much of the revenue paid indirectly is collected in and credited to states outside the residence of those who carry the immediate burden. Under modern conditions of economic integration which have increased greatly the interdependence of various sections and have permitted urban areas to derive a considerable part of their wealth and consumer's goods from other areas, it is short-sighted if not fallacious to attach much significance to the federal tax collections credited to specific states. If adjustments of the federal taxes credited to the various states could be made to take care of the indirect revenue payments made by the residents of other states, it is entirely likely that the residents of each state would be found to contribute toward the activities of the federal government in the ratios of their respective populations and wealth.

EARLY FEDERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD PUBLIC SCHOOLS

(Excepts from an article by E. C. Buehler in the National University Extension Association's Debate Handbook for 1934-35, pages 56-59.)

Today it is a generally accepted principle that public education should be provided for the children throughout the nation. The American people have faith in public schools. This faith has been founded on the widespread recognition that national progress and individual welfare can best be promoted through education. The ceaseless devotion of our people to the cause of public education has its roots in certain traditions and ideals which are fundamental to American civilization. A brief historical survey will show the conditions which gave birth to some of the educational policies of our state and federal governments.

Education during pioneering days was almost entirely in the control of the church. The governing bodies of the small New England settlements were usually the same for both civil affairs and for religious institutions. The state and church were one in interest and schools fell naturally under church authority. Gradually, however, with the building of meeting houses for the discussion of town affairs and with the coming of town taxes rather than church taxes for school support, town authorities emerged and assumed the control of education. Thus we have the emergence of state controlled schools rather than those conducted by private interests or the church. Perhaps the most important characteristic of our early schools which originated during the period of our colonial life and which has been retained in our school system to the present time, is that of local autonomy. Local communities under pioneering conditions were relatively isolated and self-contained. There were no mechanical facilities for transportation and communication to

weld the nation into one single political unit. The local community with its spirit of independence developed a unique sense of responsibility and local pride. This early tradition is still a pronounced factor in our school system of today and the management of our schools is largely delegated to local authority.

Considering the fact that schools were conducted by private and church interests in colonial times, it is not surprising that public education is not considered in our constitution. However, the solution of the religious problem in our constitution was important in the founding of our system of free non-sectarian public schools. Public education itself was left to the states as one of the unmentioned powers reserved to the states and early provisions by the state governments inaugurated state systems of education. The federal government during these days while not otherwise actively participating in education, started a program of land grants to aid the states in the establishment of schools although the grants were in their original form the direct product of economic motives. As early as 1785, the Continental Congress, in drawing up ordinances regulating the settlement of western lands, set aside section 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools. With the admission of Ohio as a state in 1801, the federal land-grant policy really started. The sixteenth section of land in each township was set aside for schools, together with certain other grants, provided the state would agree to exempt all public lands sold by Congress from taxation for a period of five years after the date of sale. In this type of trade, Congress was probably more interested originally in promoting the sale of national lands than in the establishment of schools. This type of grant for school lands, with some differences in the number of districts set aside for education, was continued on the admission of other states and after 1850 the federal government reserved school land sections as a settled policy. The total of these land grants, according to Swift, amounted to 73,155,075 acres.

The land-grant appropriations were not in the form of direct financial contributions in the sense of gifts, but they did promote the general cause of education among the various states. The federal government made no attempt to control or supervise the educational program. This, as in pioneer times, was left to local authority.

At the time of the Civil War, the federal government initiated a new type of school legislation. The Morrill act of 1862 provided for financial support and was designed for the purpose of encouraging states to provide educational facilities. It was in reality a promotional scheme in the interest of a special phase of education and it represents a change in the federal attitude. Whereas, before, the central government was chiefly interested in encouraging states to extend their educational facilities as a whole with little regard to the curriculum, it now embarked upon a policy of emphasizing special features in its educational program. This act is particularly significant since nearly all the important federal acts which have succeeded it were for the purpose of stimulating a

special type of education. The act made provisions for the establishment of colleges of agriculture and mechanical arts. Later acts were for promoting agricultural experiment stations and providing extension service for rural life; and still later, the Smith-Hughes act in 1917 was designed to initiate courses in high schools for vocational training. All this type of legislation, patterned after the Morrill act, owes its origin to the peculiar economic and social conditions of the country. During the Civil War, food problems were of national concern. An increased production on the farm was essential. Hence the act for establishing agricultural colleges. The stumbling block for such legislation would ordinarily have been the doctrine of states' rights, but in 1862 the representatives of the southern states, who were the staunch adherents of states' rights, were not in Congress. Consequently, the abnormal political situation provided an unusual opportunity for the federal government to assume this new policy. After the pattern had once been set, federal action with the view of advancing certain phases of education has occurred with increasing frequency.

This brief historical sketch shows that the federal government has always had an interest in education. Federal aid is not a new idea, although the proposition for debate involves certain features which are relatively new.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an address by R. A. Kent at an educational conference at Evanston, Ill., as carried in *School and Society*, volume 40, pages 337-344, September 15, 1934.)

On October 10, 1780, Congress passed a resolution that the western territory, which had been claimed by several colonies and was later ceded to the United States, should be disposed of for the common benefit of all the states, and that the manner and conditions of the sale of these lands should be expressly regulated by Congress.

This was followed by the ordinance of 1785, which contained the clause reserving from sale "lot number 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools within the said township." The importance and implications of this stipulation could not possibly have been realized at the time of its passage. It established a precedent whose influence was so far reaching as to reach down to the present time, and marked the beginning of a permanent policy of using public lands for public education. It was unquestionably the corner stone of federal aid to public education in the United States.

The ordinance of 1787 for the government of the northwest territory contained the declaration that "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." The ordinance of July 13, 1787, made no grants of land for education, but laid the foundation for a general development of free public education throughout the United States.

This ordinance was immediately followed by that of July 23, 1787, for the sale of public lands in Ohio, under which section 16 in each township was to be reserved for the maintenance of public schools, and "not more than two complete townships to be given perpetually for the purpose of a university." Congress granted lands for schools to Ohio when it became a state in 1802 and for a university in 1803. Similar grants of land for educational purposes were made by Congress from time to time to the territories and states in the northwest territory. Beginning with 1803 a corresponding grant was made in Tennessee, which marked the beginning of a similar congressional policy to the new states in the south and west.

About 1820 was begun the practice of granting to each state on its admission to the union two townships of saline lands, and from 3 to 5 per cent of the net proceeds of the sale of all public lands within the borders of the state. These grants of land and money were in many cases used in part or in whole for education. By the "internal improvement act" of 1841, 500,000 acres of public lands were given to each state admitted after 1800, and these grants were devoted to education after 1845.

In 1850 the "swamp land grant act" was passed. Under this, fifteen states received over 6,000,000 acres. In twelve of these states a part or all of the proceeds from the sale of these lands was given to education. On July 2, 1862, the first Morrill act was passed. This provided for colleges of agriculture and mechanical arts and donated public lands to the several states and territories which maintained these institutions. The amount of public land so appropriated was equivalent to "30,000 acres for each senator and representative in Congress to which the states are respectively entitled with the apportionment under the census of 1860." The proceeds from the sale of these lands constituted a permanent fund or endowment. The income from these lands for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1933, amounted to $967,107. Sixteen of the land-grant colleges received $534,191 from other land-grant funds for the same year.

In 1887 the Hatch act was passed. This provided for the establishment of agricultural experiment stations in connection with colleges established in the several states under the provisions of the Morrill act of 1862. In 1906 the Hatch act was amended by the Adams act to provide for an increased annual appropriation. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1933, the colleges received $1,456,347 from the Hatch-Adams funds.

In 1890 the second Morrill act was passed, and was amended in 1907 by the Nelson act. The annual appropriations from the Morrill-Nelson funds now amounted to $50,000 for each state and territory, for the benefit of the land-grant institutions. The total annual appropriation under this act is now $2,550,000. In 1914 the Smith-Lever act was passed. This provides for cooperative extension work in the agricultural colleges which receive benefit under the Morrill act of 1862. For the year ending June 30, 1933, the amount distributed under the Smith-

Lever act was $6,200,833, with $930,574 additional cooperative extension funds.

In 1917 Congress passed the Smith-Hughes act. This provides for cooperation between the federal government and the several states in the promotion of vocational education in agriculture, in the trades and in industries, and for the preparation of teachers of subjects in the same classifications. In 1929 this act was supplemented by the George Reed act to provide for further development of vocational education. During the year ending June 30, 1933, the government appropriated under this act $2,600,000. Under the George Ellzeg act an additional federal appropriation was made, amounting to $3,100,000. The amount spent from these funds by the states and territories for the year ending June 30, 1933, was $8,739,865.

In 1924 the Clarke-McNary act was passed. This was primarily to provide for the protection of forest lands, and although subsidizing education was not mentioned in the act, the land-grant colleges received some financial benefits. For the year ending June 30, 1933, the amount which they thus received was $59,751.

In 1925 there was enacted the Purnell act. This was for the more complete endowment of the agricultural experiment stations. Only the land-grant institutions which were primarily or exclusively for white students participated in the benefits of this particular legislation, and the total amount which they received under this act during the year ending June 30, 1933, was $2,653,860.

In 1928 Congress passed the Capper-Ketchum act. This provided for further development of agriculture and experimentation work at the agricultural colleges of the several states. The total amount spent under this act for the year ending June 30, 1933, was $1,479,632. For the year already indicated the federal government spent upon its military training program in 124 colleges and universities and in 100 high schools and academies $6,698,219.

For the year ending June 30, 1933, the last fiscal year of the federal government for which we have complete returns, the United States distributed for the support of education under the several acts and for the purposes above enumerated a total of $28,697,323. This figure does not include monies spent to maintain the United States Military Academy at West Point, the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, the United States Coast Guard Academy at New London, Connecticut, appropriations made to Howard University, the Gallaudet College for the Deaf, special schools for Indian children, special schools for Eskimo children or the United States office of education.

NATIONAL CRISIS IN SCHOOLS

(Editorial in the Charlotte, N. C., Observer for February 21, 1934)

Whether the public school system of America qualifies in every detail to come within the scope of federal subsidy in the present economic emergency may be questioned.

If it is consented, first of all, that schools represent a social necessity,

then their present condition warrants governmental assistance beyond debate.

Those who are convinced in their own minds of the indispensable nature of education in a secure national life will insist, of course, that it is as much the function of a social-minded government to take note of the widespread distress in the field of public schools as to render aid to crippled banks, to floundering industry and to prostrate agriculture.

It is not so vital, in this especial connection, to indulge in argument over the issue as it is to ascertain if there is a genuine crisis prevailing in the field of public education—a crisis that has developed as incident to the same dislocation that has attacked the economic resources of America and a crisis, too, that has become too acute for community or state solution.

In other words, is there an emergency in education which is beyond the control of the taxpayers in the lesser units of political divisions than that of the United States government?

Better to pry into that first than to engage in elaborate argumentations over the issue of whether, if there is such a crisis, should the federal government have a concern about it.

The statistics are on the side of the affirmative of this query. North Carolina statistics are not, but it is worth holding in mind that this is an exceptional state just now in its solution of the current educational problems.

It does not have, to be sure, an ideal situation, but North Carolina is the only state in the American Union that has guaranteed a public school term of eight months and that is proceeding to render to the people of this commonwealth that public service on the basis upon which it set out last fall.

North Carolina has covenanted with its citizens that not a school house in the state will be closed on account of lack of finances for these eight months and that every teacher will be paid in full every cent promised for the full term in actual money without delay.

Up to this time that pledge has been met by the state and there is no reason to feel alarm that for the remainder of the agreed upon term of eight months, it will default in any of these original promises.

But it's vastly different in other states where conditions are worse in some than in others, but bad in practically all.

In the country at large schools have already closed in the faces of 175,000 children, while 350,000 other children will have the benefits of a school term of three months or less and there are 10,982 schools that will be able to operate only from three to six months.

City schools in America are employing today 18,000 fewer teachers than in 1930 and there are 200,000 certified school teachers now who are unemployed, many of them in desperate need.

In the matter of salaries approximately 50,000 teachers will this year receive less than $300 for the full year's work, if paid at all, and 210,000 will receive from $300 to $750.

AFFIRMATIVE REFERENCES

FEDERAL ASSISTANCE IN EQUALIZING EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

(Excerpts from an article by William G. Carr in the National University Extension Association's Debate Handbook for 1934-35, pages 77-110.)

The national government has a vital interest in an educated citizenship. There is one inevitable prerequisite before a democracy may deal properly with the perplexing social and economic problems which constantly face it. That one indispensable requirement is an effective system of general education. This fact was clearly recognized by the founders of the republic. It has been restated and reemphasized by each succeeding generation. Even the most autocratic of modern governments finds it necessary to operate a system of public schools and to provide public revenues for the financing of these schools. If public education is recognized even by these forms of government as indispensable, how much more necessary it is that such education be generously provided in a democracy. Under a plan of democratic and representative government, the security and progress of the nation may not depend solely upon the intelligence and knowledge of a few leaders. In a democracy the national welfare can rise no higher than its source, and that source is the general enlightenment of the people as a whole. Competent leadership we must have, but our form of government requires that even the most competent leadership must return again and again to the people for its support and ratification. If the people are ignorant and unqualified to cope with the problems of modern civilization, the best leadership will be repudiated and the worst leadership will be placed in the saddle.

The economic crisis through which the country has been passing for the past four years has revealed in a striking way the degree to which the nation has become a single unit which responds as a whole to social, economic, and cultural influences. It took George Washington days to travel the short distance from Mount Vernon to New York when he was inaugurated as the first President of the United States. Today an automobile can easily make the trip in a few hours. As this article is being written the newspapers are carrying an account of a train which traveled from Denver, Colorado, to Chicago, Illinois, in approximately 13 hours. Airplanes fly regularly between New York and Los Angeles and make the trip day after day in less than 24 hours. Any reader of this article could speak directly to any other reader by telephone upon a few minutes notice. Newspapers, magazines, motion pictures, and radio reach millions daily. The mental horizon of the individual has shifted from the narrow confines of a community to the breadth of the entire nation.

Families move from place to place and from state to state with increasing frequency. The children who accompany them go from school to school and from state to state. A recent study of 4,218 pupils en-

rolled in three small Missouri cities found pupils who had attended school in no less than thirty-nine out of the forty-eight states. About one-fifth of all the previous changes of location involved movement between states. The authors of this study point out that just as the federal government has become interested in the great arterial highways of the nation and has assumed a share in their construction, there also exists a national responsibility for the education of the children in the states which these national highways connect. Those interested in a good national citizenship must therefore become interested in the type of schooling offered in every state of the nation and in every part of every state.

The mobility of the students and graduates of our public schools in particular may be further illustrated by a number of recent studies of this problem. One study has shown that from the high school of a single small farming community of less than 500 people, there went forth in the space of nine years 3,604 graduates. More than one-third of this group went to points outside of the home state. From an intensive study of the geographical scope of this migration the investigation concludes that "the ordinary farm community is connected up with the whole nation. So far-reaching is the influence of a typical obscure farm community that the statesmen and interested members of the nation seem to be highly interested parties of all rural problems."

The increasing national interest in the educational system emphasizes not only the desirability but also the necessity of using federal funds for the support of education. At the present time the support of public education is largely derived from the local property tax. It is true that this tax is somewhat supplemented by grants from the state which are often made possible by the levying of state income taxes and other forms of state taxation. The fact remains, however, that many states do not make any worthwhile contribution to the support of their schools from such sources and in practically all states the state aid does not and cannot amount to a sum sufficient to accord substantial relief to the overburdened local property tax. It is generally conceded that the property tax is an important and basic form of raising governmental revenues, but it is also conceded that this one particular form of taxation is perhaps the most overburdened source of public revenue. As long as the schools draw their principal support from this form of taxation it is evident that it will be unduly difficult for education to receive adequate financing. The most fundamentally important public function is public education and it is an unfortunate circumstance that this most important function rests for its support upon the most severely burdened source of public revenue. There is one definite method by which this unfortunate condition may be promptly alleviated. The federal government levies no tax on property. The revenues of the federal government are derived from customs duties, from excise taxes, from liquor and gasoline taxes, and from taxes on personal and business incomes. Every dollar of federal support to education would make it possible to relieve the local property tax by that amount. If the resi-

dents of any particular state or community desired to maintain their property tax at its present level, or at a higher level, they could do so by using the federal assistance as a means of improving their schools. Other states and communities could lower the local taxes without crippling their schools. In either case the results of federal assistance would be both economically and educationally desirable.

It may be argued that the federal government has no right to expend for the state of Alabama money collected in the state of New York. Such an argument, however, is based on a misunderstanding both of the nature of education in a democracy and of the nature and effects of the tax system. Money spent for the education of citizenship in the United States in any part of the country works to the advantage of the entire nation and therefore to the advantage of any given part of it. The tax question transcends state boundaries. Money raised by taxation loses its identity, as far as its source is concerned, when it reaches the treasury of the United States. It is then the property of the whole people and should be spent in ways which will benefit the whole people. Spending federal money to equalize educational opportunities throughout the nation up to a reasonable level is emphatically a method of benefiting the whole people. Furthermore, it must be remembered that the mere fact that a tax is collected in a given state does not by any means assure us that the wealth on which the tax is based originated solely within that particular state. A citizen and resident of New York may derive his income from a coal mine in New Mexico or an apple orchard in Washington. The facts of economic interdependence which have already been emphasized show that the existence of wealth within a given political unit does not mean that the residents of that unit have produced that wealth by their own individual and unaided efforts. It is therefore perfectly possible and proper for the federal government to tax that wealth in the interest of the entire people.

An irate Rhode Island farmer once threatened personal violence to Henry Barnard for advocating the doctrine that one man's land should be taxed to educate another man's child. This principle is now fully accepted in the local community and in the states. It is as sound when applied to the nation as to the state or local community.

The wealth of the United States is the result of the cooperation of Americans scattered from Maine to California and from Seattle to Key West. No section achieves economic prosperity independently of the rest of the nation.

The automobile industry of Detroit would be impossible without the support of the drivers of automobiles living in all sections of the union. Wealth in modern times is not the creation of any individual or locality working independently. It is the result of the cooperation of great bodies of people spread over tremendous stretches of territory.

It is right, therefore, to tax wealth, no matter where it happens to be situated, for a purpose that is of fundamental significance to us all. Education is such a purpose. The welfare of all of us is threatened if any of us is educationally below par. It is right to tax the nation's

wealth wherever it exists to educate the nation's children wherever they may live.

What right is more fundamental than the right of a child to a decent educational start in life? The right of an American child to receive an education should be absolute so long as there is an adequate supply of wealth in the United States to draw upon for the support of public schools.

The 48 states of the union naturally differ with respect to their wealth and with respect to the amount of money which they have available to spend for private and public purposes. These differences are due to differences in natural fertility of the soil, mineral and water power resources, the degree of industrial and commercial development, and to a wide variety of other causes. The ability of a state to support public education may be roughly defined as the amount of money which it can place behind each child of school age. An accurate measure of this ability is impossible because of the many complicated differences in economic conditions and because of the lack of complete data. Nevertheless, it is possible to secure a number of fairly reliable indexes of the ability of the states to support education.

The simplest and most obvious measure of the need of a state for educational opportunity is the number of children of school age who reside in it. School age may be variously defined. It is often considered as including those persons between the ages of six to seventeen, inclusive. There are just 29,500,000 persons in the United States who fall within this range of ages. If these children were distributed evenly among the 48 states, each state would have approximately 600,000 children to educate. As a matter of fact, however, seven of the states, namely, California, Illinois, Michigan, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania and Texas, are responsible for the education of over 1,000,000 children each, while four states, Delaware, Nevada, Vermont, and Wyoming, have less than 100,000 each.

Since those states which have few children also have few adults, the simple statistics on the number of children in each of the states do not reveal completely the educational load of the state. A more significant figure for this purpose is the percentage of the total population, which is made up of children six to seventeen years of age. For the United States as a whole, children six to seventeen years of age, comprised, in 1932, 24 per cent of the total population. This proportion was by no means consistent from state to state. South Carolina, for example, far exceeded its quota with 31 per cent of its entire population falling within the years of schooling. California and Nevada at the other extreme had less than 20 per cent of their total population in the school years. Such states as Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Mississippi, and the Carolinas have a heavy educational burden which is linked definitely with relatively restricted economic resources.

The facts cited in the two previous sections concerning the ability and educational load of the several states lead us to expect wide differences in the quality and quantity of education offered. Such is indeed the case.

In 1932 the expenditures per child in average daily attendance in the public schools of the United States as a whole, were $97.15. Such states as Iowa, Maryland, Minnesota, and New Hampshire paid sums for the education of their children approximately equal to the average for the country as a whole. Many states, however, were able to make a much larger investment in the education of their children. Such states as California, Delaware, New Jersey, and New York, spent from $150 to $175 a year on each child in average daily attendance, while Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, and South Carolina spent less than $40 a year. The expenditures per child in New York were over five times as much as in Georgia. A certain amount of this difference is undoubtedly accounted for by prevailing costs and standards of living in the several states, but it appears inevitable that to a large degree these differences reflect real and serious differences in the quality of education received.

From the biennial survey of education for 1930 the following additional contrasts may be drawn. These contrasts spell a significant difference in the chances which the children of the several states have to secure a reasonably even start in life. The cumulative effect of these various differences, especially when continued year after year, cannot but have a serious result in the education of the children concerned.

In Arkansas 72 children attended school daily for each 100 enrolled; in Indiana 89 children attended school daily for each 100 enrolled. In Oklahoma 31 per cent of the school term was not utilized by the children enrolled. In Ohio only 10 per cent of the school term was not used.

In Mississippi the average school term was 133 days. In New Jersey it was 188 days. The 55 days difference would amount in the course of an eight-year elementary school to 440 days, or over two years of schooling. In Mississippi the average child enrolled attended school 98 days. In New York the average child enrolled attended school 163 days. The 65 days difference would amount in an eight-year school course to over three years of schooling.

The average value of school property per child enrolled was $72 in Georgia and $407 in New York. The average salary of principals, supervisors, and teachers was $620 in Mississippi, and $2,493 in New York. The percentage of men teachers in the entire teaching staff was 9 per cent in Iowa and 29 per cent in Utah.

In Mississippi 9 per cent of the total enrollment in the elementary and secondary schools was found in high schools. In the state of Washington 25 per cent of the total enrollment was to be found in high schools. In Georgia the expenditure for education per capita in the total population was $6. In Nevada it was $30.

A minimum standard, not a uniform standard, is needed. In citing the foregoing statistics it is not intended to imply that all of the states could be reduced to a uniform level in any of their educational offerings. The statistics are cited to show that enormous, and in many cases unjustifiable, differences do exist among the states with reference to the kind of educational opportunity which they provide. In view of the consideration mentioned earlier in this article, the national interest in

an effective citizenship cannot permit these dfferences to continue indefinitely. The federal government should grant funds to the several states in such amounts as will insure the operation of some reasonable minimum program of education in every state in the union. The states in turn should so apportion these federal grants among their several school districts as to make sure that no child within the state is denied an opportunity of at least this minimum standard.

Abundant precedent exists for federal assistance to the states in the matter of education. The national importance of education was recognized by Washington, Jefferson, and other leaders in the very first years of the republic. Federal appropriations have been made to the states for educational purposes since 1792. Federal assistance to education, however, began even earlier than this date. The Congress of the Confederation in 1785 reserved one section in every township "for maintenance of public schools within the said township." This educational policy of the federal government was retained when the new constitution was adopted and as the Louisiana, Florida, California, and Oregon territories were acquired, this federal policy regarding assistance to education in the states was continued and expanded. In 1862, the Morrill act granted aid to the land-grant colleges, and in 1887, the Hatch act made provisions for supporting agricultural experiment stations in the several states. Additional grants by Congress for educational purposes came in 1890, 1906, 1907, 1911, 1914, 1917, 1920, 1924, 1929, and 1930. The federal government also cooperates with the states in many matters closely related to education.

This article should perhaps be concluded by a brief mention of the fear with which opponents of federal aid for education regard federal control of the educational process.

The experience of the states in the apportionment of aid to communities for school purposes, as well as the experience of the federal government itself, has shown clearly that control of the educational process may be assumed or may not be assumed in connection with the granting of federal aid to the schools. If the legal and administrative machinery takes one form, federal control, federal interference, and the crushing of local initiative are likely to result. If the legislation takes another form, these evils will be avoided. State autonomy in educational matters can be preserved by giving federal aid to states for education in general, not in the form of special grants designed to stimulate development of particular types of education. Federal control of the spending of the funds can be prevented by simply including in the congressional legislation as part of the basic law that there shall be no dictation by any federal officer as to how the money will be spent. As for local initiative, it can be fostered rather than hampered by the right type of federal aid. At the present moment many poverty-stricken states and communities have no local initiative in education because they must spend every cent which they can reasonably be expected to levy for maintaining the barest requirements of schooling. If such communities were given federal aid under the right conditions they could use the resulting leeway in their

own resources to develop whatever new educational plans and policies might appear to them to suit their needs and interests.

The federal, state, and local governments each have a unique responsibility and a unique contribution to make to the financing and control of public education. The primary financial responsibility rests upon the states. The state may properly delegate a part of this responsibility to local school districts established for that purpose. These local school districts may be empowered to levy taxes and conduct school systems. The state, however, retains the right to remove at any time the powers of the school district if it becomes clear that the school district is not providing the education which the state must have for its welfare and safety. Furthermore, since the areas within a given state differ greatly with respect to their educational responsibilities and with respect to their ability to provide education, it is necessary for the state to assist local communities in the financing of education. The state may also very properly establish certain minimum standards for conducting education, specifying the length of the school term, the minimum training of the teachers, and similar matters, leaving the local communities a margin for the development of local initiative and local pride in their schools. The proper role of the federal government is to equalize the educational opportunities of the states up to a certain reasonable minimum, just as the role of the state is to equalize the educational opportunities in the districts within the state. Just as the state should not interfere with local initiative and experimentation in educational matters, so the federal government should not, and need not, dictate educational policy within the state. There can be no real conflict between the states and the federal government with respect to control and support of education, since the citizens of the state are the citizens of the federal government. The only question at issue is whether the cost of education within a given state must be met entirely from the resources of that state, or whether the federal government may distribute part of the cost of education over the entire citizenship of the nation. In order to preserve state autonomy in educational matters, federal aid can be given to the states for education as a whole and not in the form of special grants designed to stimulate the development of particular types of education.

FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an address by G. F. Zook at the convention of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C., July 3, 1934, as carried in School and Society, volume 40, pages 41-48, July 14, 1934.)

After a separate existence of sixteen years the functions of the federal board for vocational education were by order of the President in August, 1933, transferred to the department of the interior and two months later assigned by the secretary of that department to the commissioner of education. Thus ended an unfortunate situation which for a number

of years had given rise to considerable misunderstanding and apprehension. Already it has been demonstrated that the two organizations can be merged in spirit and purpose and that through our present comprehensive organization the interests of vocational and general education can be developed both vigorously and harmoniously. The combined staff of the office of education now numbers approximately 150 persons with an appropriation during the present fiscal year for salaries and general expenses of $593,753. I believe that the present administration is entitled to the deep gratitude of laymen and educators alike for having taken this statesmanlike step in the development of sound policy relative to the relations of the federal government to education. We can now go forward united under one banner and in one organization.

The year just closed has been one of the most distressing yet possibly also one of the most significant ones in the history of American education. Everywhere the schools and colleges, both public and private, have been compelled to resort to further economies which in many states were so severe as to constitute nothing short of an educational crisis. In such a period old methods and outworn organization pass out and something more suited to the new day takes their place. While it is as yet too early even to identify all these trends, we are at that point in the development of certain national educational policies where with far less effort than usual we have the opportunity to influence the course of events in education for a generation, if not for several of them.

Our present difficulties in the support of education go back to our fundamental law. The federal constitution did not of course confer upon the central government authority to deal with education. Hence this responsibility was reserved to the several states. They in turn abdicated this obligation to the local units within the states.

For years local communities also shirked the responsibility for the maintenance of schools. Then arose a great line of prophets from Horace Mann to P. P. Claxton, who went about the states of this union preaching the inalienable right of little children to the cultural heritage of the ages and the necessity of universal public education as the basis for popular government. Spreading the gospel of education was engaged in with a zeal akin to religious evangelism, of which it was indeed often an integral part. The spread of free public schools into every corner of our land during the last 100 years not by governmental coercion but mainly through popular desire is one of the striking accomplishments of the marvelous age through which we have passed. The school units of those early days were no larger than those which could be attended conveniently by a group of children walking to school and which contained enough real estate to support the school through taxation. There never was even in the beginning any relationship between the number of children to be schooled and the ability of the community to support schools.

The economic and social changes of recent decades, while they have generally raised the level of educational opportunity, have on the other hand also increased the inequalities of such opportunities between and

among children. The concentration of wealth makes a high school education an easy possibility in some communities, in others junior college education is within easy reach, in still others various curricula leading to baccalauréate degrees may be obtained as against a limitation of school opportunities to the elementary grades in the case of a large proportion of children and young people not so fortunately situated.

One of the factors in this situation is the way in which the schools have been confined to the real estate property tax as almost their sole means of support. In the face of rapid increases in other types of wealth from which income was available the schools kept on levying local taxes on real estate while other public agencies, especially those carried on by the states, have been wise enough to use more modern and effective sources of taxation. In 1931-32, 80.5 per cent of revenue receipts from taxation and appropriation for the schools came from county and local sources. Practically all this came from taxes on real estate. On the other hand, the gasoline tax generally used for the maintenance of roads is an eloquent example of the kind of a tax which can be levied successfully long after local property taxes have in many parts of the country all but broken down. While we can of course look forward confidently to the continued revival of business and industry in such a manner as to make it possible for the owners of property again to pay taxes in larger amounts than at present, I am confident that local taxes on property can never again be counted on as much as in the past to bear the burdens of interest and sinking fund for capital outlay and for general maintenance of the schools. If this statement is true we are indeed faced not with a theory but a condition that may well make those who have the welfare of our country through education at heart pause for extended consideration. We shall have to do something about it or the financial support of our educational program will be permanently impaired.

Inasmuch as I have just stepped out of federal service it is perhaps natural that I should share with you some of my observations relative to the problem of federal aid to education which have grown in part out of the brief but most interesting year during which it has been my privilege to serve as commissioner of education.

There are a number of considerations which bear upon this problem, but I call your attention to but two of them. First, the title to the wealth of the country which is produced by all of us working together in all parts of the country is concentrated in certain states and even in metropolitan areas of these states in a most interesting and surprising manner. It seems no more than simple justice, therefore, that a way should be found by means of which wealth may be taxed where it is located and the income therefrom distributed to the states to be used for the education of the children where they are located.

In 1913 the sixteenth amendment to the federal constitution was adopted. This amendment authorized the federal government to levy income taxes on individuals. It is doubtful whether any addition to our fundamental law of greater social significance has been made since the

beginnings of our government. This amendment conferred upon the federal government power to levy and collect the most important modern form of taxation. In 1931-32 the income taxes collected by the federal government from corporations and individuals amounted to $1,056,757,000. Even in the next year when the depression was at its height receipts from the federal income tax were $746,791,404. To the extent that the federal government exercises this power, the states are in effect inhibited from using it for their own purposes. To a considerable extent the same kind of development has taken place relative to inheritance taxes and relative to certain sales taxes, notably on liquor, tobacco and gasoline, which otherwise could have been used more extensively by the states to support state and local functions.

Hence during the last two decades two important developments affecting the support of all state and local functions, including education, have been taking place simultaneously, namely, the breakdown of the property tax on the one hand, and the gradual assumption by the federal government of a number of sources of modern and effective taxes which, had they been left to the states, would at least have enabled the states and the local communities to pull themselves out of their financial troubles more quickly and easily. In view of these circumstances it has always seemed to me to be somewhat unbecoming on the part of the members of Congress, as has happened so frequently in the session just closed, to advise somewhat testily representatives of state and local governments, including the schools, that if only they would "set their houses in order back home" it would be unnecessary to ask for federal aid.

However, few people would now advocate that the federal government surrender the income tax and other modern taxes to the states. Our experience shows clearly that the federal government is far more effective in the collection of such taxes than the several states can possibly be. Moreover, through the services conducted by the federal government from the income derived from these sources all the people benefit, whereas a return of these several forms of taxation to the states would only emphasize the present injustices and inequalities between and among our citizens resulting from the concentration of the title to wealth in a small number of metropolitan areas. It is evident that this is not the solution of the financial problems facing the states and localities, including the schools.

I am convinced that if the federal government continues to levy these more modern forms of taxation, as it alone can do most effectively, it follows as clearly as can be that some proportion of the proceeds of these taxes should be returned to the states for the support of state and local government functions, including schools.

It is perhaps unnecessary for me to call your attention to the fact that while I am here taking a stand in favor of federal aid to education I believe that we educators should be broadminded enough to recognize that whatever financial problems face the schools also face all other aspects of our state and especially our local governments. Many people

have objected violently that certain forms of education, namely, extension education in agriculture and home economics, vocational education and education in agriculture and mechanic arts to the neglect of others have been selected by the federal government for special subsidy. Whatever validity there is to these objections holds equally well for the whole education as against all other state and local needs. To the extent, therefore, that we succeed in securing federal aid for education only there will always be a corresponding tendency for the states and localities to reduce their appropriations for this service. We cannot, therefore, and we ought not to want to escape the necessarily close relationships which exist between the financial problems facing the schools and all other forms of local and state efforts. Would it not be wiser public policy, therefore, for us to join cordially in all efforts which may be made in Washington in the future to secure a comprehensive program of federal aid to the states and localities for all aspects of government, including the schools, rather than to pursue our own special needs too far? I believe that we ought to give this matter our earnest consideration. It would, among other things, avoid many of the problems of federal control of education.

On February 2 of this year Mr. Harry Hopkins at the recommendation of the office of education issued a release stating that it was his purpose to make available federal funds to employ teachers from February 1 to June 30, 1934, " in elementary and secondary schools, in communities up to 5,000 population—where the districts have made the maximum financial effort and are still obliged to close short of a normal length of school term." The pay of the teachers was not to "be higher than that stipulated for the same positions during the current year."

As soon as this order was issued the office of education lent several members of its staff and called on several of the leading men in school finance in state departments of education to help the FERA to determine the amounts of money to which the several states under Mr. Hopkins' order were entitled. It was a difficult problem which had to be met promptly, but I am happy to say that it was done successfully. As a result of this action $16,924,765 has been distributed to 33 states. Seven states each received $1,000,000 or more as follows: Alabama, $2,266,909; Georgia, $1,675,000; Oklahoma, $1,377,695; Mississippi, $1,321,876; Florida, Louisiana and Tennessee, $1,000,000 each. The smallest sums were received by Washington, $29,928; Idaho, $19,921; and Iowa, $9,514. Some of you will be interested to know that no state east of the Alleghanies and north of the Potomac river qualified for federal relief to their school teachers.

I am sure that you join me in an expression of deepest gratification that through the generosity of the federal government it was thus possible to keep open the schools of the country upon something like the normal basis reached during the depression in the several states. Somehow or other the federal government seems a bit closer to you and me as a result of this action. When to this sum is added approximately $8,000,000 for the emergency educational program in adult education

and in nursery schools together with approximately $7,000,000 for the part-time employment program of college students, and $2,500,000 for the educational program in the civilian conservation corps camps, the grand total for the emergency educational program reaches the rather large sum of approximately $36,000,000. To this should be added the amounts of money distributed by the office of education to the several states and territories annually for the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, $2,550,000; vocational education, approximately $6,998,775; vocational rehabilitation, approximately $887,648; total, approximately $10,436,423. Even this figure does not include the money expended for extension education in agriculture and home economics, and the large but unestimated sum of federal money which was made available through CWA for school repairs and construction.

I wish, however, to call your attention to the fact that the $16,924,765 set aside by the federal government to keep the schools open was frankly intended not as federal aid to education but as relief to school districts in the states on the basis of normal school term and existing salaries. There was no attempt at equalization of any kind. If the normal school term of a Negro school was four months as against seven months for the whites, it was assumed that the states should be helped to maintain their own chosen situation. Or if the average salary of teachers in one state was $40 as against $60 in another state, the respective salary bases of the two states were used. The school districts of Iowa, for example, made themselves ineligible for further federal assistance by taking advantage of a state law, enabling them to reduce teachers' salaries to a minimum of $40 per month.

Early in the session of Congress just closed there arose an insistent demand that Congress make available through the office of education a direct appropriation of at least $100,000,000 to keep the schools open. The committee on education in the house held hearings for nearly a week, at which a great deal of evidence showing the probable needs of the schools during the year 1934-35 was presented. There was no opposition. The house committee on education finally reported out a bill for $75,000,000, based on the philosophy that the schools should receive temporary relief but carefully avoiding any commitment to the policy of permanent federal aid to education. Although strenuous and magnificent service was rendered by the emergency committee headed by Superintendent James H. Richmond of Kentucky, the bill never came to a vote in either house. In effect the administration compromised through a statement made by the chairman of the appropriations committee in the house when he introduced the omnibus relief bill which afterwards became a law. At that time the chairman of the house appropriations committee itemized the "Proposed application from July 1, 1934, to March 1, 1935 (8 months)." Among these items were included "Schools (subject to authorization by the President)—$48,000,000."

From this statement it is clear that no federal funds are earmarked for the schools this year. The amount which is used for the relief of school teachers will depend this year as it did last year on the action

of the administration. Thus the principle of federal relief to teachers as against a possible permanent policy of federal aid to education has been maintained in the face of tremendous pressure on the part of a large proportion of the teaching profession.

Any one who believes that social and economic conditions have so changed as to make necessary or desirable regular federal aid to education cannot of course be satisfied with work relief wages to school teachers on the basis of status quo. There is no element of equalization either for teachers or pupils in the whole business. As a matter of fact the inequalities of the depression as they affect the schools are far greater now than they were prior to the depression. Since the depression the wealthier states have reduced expenditures moderately, but Alabama has lost one-half of the meager amount it had. The gap between the educational opportunities of the children in the poorer states and those in the wealthier states widens. One may well paraphrase the old parable to make it read "from the child that hath will be taken away but little but from him that hath not will be taken away even that which he hath." Very few of you believe, I am convinced, that this situation can continue indefinitely. Some form of permanent federal aid to education must replace the present temporary expedient of federal relief to needy teachers.

FEDERAL FINANCING OF EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an article by W. F. Russell in School and Society, volume 38, pages 225-233, August 19, 1933.)

It is my purpose to show that substantial support by the federal government of the educational programs of the states has been needed for many years past; that it has become increasingly necessary because of the developments of the machine and power ages; and that the depression of the past four years has made it imperative. I propose to show that government financing is in accord with the development of the policies of our government with respect to education; that it is quite in agreement with our plans for aiding agriculture, manufactures and commerce; and that, instead of constituting a break with tradition or being the introduction of a practice foreign to the operations of our government, it is completely in harmony with the spirit of the fathers of the constitution.

We have known for many years past—indeed, it has now become generally accepted—that we cannot trust the education of American children to the sum of money available from the resources of a small taxing district, nor to the social ideals of a backward, illiterate community. I remember once being conducted on a tour of inspection of the rural schools in Shelby county, Tennessee; traveling over smooth roads, past prosperous farms, to beautiful consolidated schools, each with ample grounds, assembly halls, laboratories for home economics and agriculture, attended by well-dressed children, presided over by trained, experienced and well-paid teachers. At one point we crossed

the county line, the paving stopped; down a rutted dirt road we came to a small stream, no bridge, and, hub deep in water, spraying on all sides, we crossed to the other bank, slid through the mud, and up beside a rickety school, unpainted, cracks, knotholes, dirty windowpanes surrounding the holes left by those long since vanished. No sanitary arrangements, meager equipment, bare feet and overalls.

Experiences of this kind are convincing. Those who cannot make many trips like this may travel vicariously; and those who cannot gather the proper perspective from many visits may have the facts assembled and presented to them. Survey, tables and statistics are the methods we in education use to give travelogues to the many. By averages we paint the picture, by standard deviations we tell the story; and in many a report or study, or in the dry dust of financial surveys, my experience near Memphis has been repeated. We note riches in one district, destitution in another; many children in one, few in another. A melting glacier, ages ago, leaves moraine; an ancient lake, dammed by the ice, deposits fertile soil on its bed; a torrent surging erodes a wide area; mother nature deposits oil at one place and iron ore at another; a legislature allocates railroad taxes according to main line track mileage; and American children in 1933, on those accounts, are provided with or deprived of opportunities for education. With a given effort in proportion to real wealth, one community furnishes a hovel for a school building, a short school term, a poorly trained teacher and ancient textbooks. In another there is a modern fireproof school, a long term, a trained teacher, adequate laboratories, splendid equipment, motion pictures, radios; and the school board could easily give each graduate a trip to Washington and a gold watch. It was this problem that Cubberley, Elliott, Strayer and Updegraff attacked a generation ago. It was this problem that awaited Dr. Mort's discoveries for a plan of action. It is this problem that Maryland and Delaware, New York and Ohio, North Carolina and New Jersey, Pennsylvania and many other states are in process of solving. It is to be hoped that in the not far distant future the welfare of any child within the boundaries of any one state will no longer depend upon happenings in geologic history, upon accidents of legislative injustice, upon the chances of racial origin, on the operations of local prejudice, on the prevalence of hookworm or trachoma. The struggle for state equalization of educational opportunity is on the way to victory. Sometime in the not too far distant future every one of the forty-eight states will have adopted a plan for equalization of educational opportunity and the state financing of a recognized minimum program.

But even then the battle will not be won. Just as mere inspection and scientific investigation reveal inequalities within the states, so there is variation of educational opportunity among the states themselves. We are all familiar with the data presented by Leonard P. Ayres, with the reports presented by the bureau of education, with the facts gathered by the National Education Association, with the interpretations made by Professor Norton and by Director Mort. Norton shows that the

twelve richest states are more than three times as able to meet their educational obligations as the twelve poorest, and that California is probably six times as well off as Mississippi. I do not need to dwell upon the wealth of evidence tending to reveal the disparities among the states. Sometime when a proper national study of school finance is carried to completion, the full facts will be known. It is obvious that great educational injustices will be revealed, inequalities in ability to pay, and that these difficulties will be remedied only when a far larger proportion of school revenue comes from the nation as a whole. We cannot reenact an act of God, but we can adjust ourselves to the inequalities of nature.

There has been an inequality amongst the states from the start. We should have had national financial aid to the schools from the beginning. But the need has increased rather than decreased with each succeeding year. When the bulk of the wealth was in real property, there was a rough and relatively steady relation between the location of taxable wealth and the location of educational expenditures. A factory brought wealth to a town. It also brought many children. Wealth was scattered on the farms. So were the prospective pupils. Inadequate as the general property tax may have been in an agrarian civilization, it has become definitely worse as we live in the machine age and approach the power age. No longer are our wants supplied locally. We buy our automobiles from Detroit, our tires from Ohio, our iron from Pennsylvania and Indiana. Chain stores cover the nation. Capital has become concentrated in New York, in Chicago, in Boston; and wealth which should help support schools in Arkansas and Mississippi goes to Brookline, Bronxville and Evanston. I shall make no categorical statement. I know that economists disagree upon this point. I assert without proof at this moment that the concentration of capital in the machine and power economies has increased the disparity in the abilities of the states to support education by means of taxing systems now commonly in use. Only in the nation as a whole does the power rest. Nor need I mention the inequality caused by the haphazard manner in which coal, iron, silver, oil and other mineral resources were long ago deposited in our soil. Minnesota children have no more right to profit from the Mesaba Range, Texas children from the oil fields than New York children have to profit from the Erie Canal, the great harbor and the concentration of railroads and shipping. National aid must come.

Federal aid to the schools is no new policy. The Confederation, legislating for the national domain in 1785, set aside land for schools, and in 1787 evinced a national concern for education. Beginning with the acts of 1802 and 1803 and continuing in greater detail just prior to the admission of each succeeding state, the Congress of the United States has granted aid to education in general and also to particular institutions. With the first Morrill act of 1862 federal aid was given to special institutions, the land-grant colleges; and the Hatch act in 1887, supporting the experiment stations, put the government directly at work in state institutions. The Adams act of 1906 and the Purnell act of

1925 gave additional appropriations to and placed new restrictions upon these experiment stations. The second Morrill act of 1890 and the Nelson amendment of 1907 gave more land to the land-grant colleges, gave them in addition annual subsidies in cash; and placed more power in government hands by enabling the government to withhold funds. The first grant for special education, together with the first appearance of the idea of requiring the state to match federal funds, came with the marine school act of 1911. Federal aid to stimulate special subjects in the common schools (in this case agriculture and home economics) came with the Smith-Lever act of 1914 and the Smith-Hughes act of 1917. The civilian vocational rehabilitation acts of 1920, 1924, and 1930, and the George-Reed act of 1929 gave direct federal subsidy to vocational education, much governmental direction and considerable control. In 1930 the federal government paid to the states more than $20,000,000 in support of these projects.

The federal government has also cooperated with the states in many other matters. It has made payments to the states from its national forest funds, in its cooperative fire prevention service, in forest planting, in the construction of rural post roads, in the promotion of welfare and hygiene of maternity, in supplying printed materials for the blind, in providing homes for disabled soldiers and sailors, and in subsidizing the National Guard. In 1930 the sum total for these agencies totaled nearly six times the subsidies for education.

The need for national aid to the states, apparent from the start, increased by commercial developments of the machine age, has become critical during this depression. Inequalities once bearable have become intolerable in many communities. In one locality, dependence is upon a single crop, wheat or tobacco, corn or cotton. The market drops out of sight. So do the schools. In another locality, we find that a notoriously bad system of banking law and practice causes financial chaos, and the schools collapse. Here there is a struggle between a city, a county and a state legislature which causes taxes to go unpaid for one, two or three years; and a century of progress culminates in a broken-down school system, a demoralized student body and a teaching force ready for any mischief.

It is not the schools alone that are affected by the depression. All the ordinary agencies of agriculture, commerce and industry are seriously hurt, and into the breach has stepped the federal government. With the legislation of the last years of the Hoover administration, and in the first one hundred days of "The New Deal," we find a new national policy. The Reconstruction Finance Corporation, a private corporation backed by the government has loaned huge sums to banks, to railroads, to private enterprises of all sorts. Under the Roosevelt administration we see not only a large national undertaking in the development of the Tennessee Valley, but we are promised huge "public works," furnishing employment for hundreds of thousands. These projects include ships for the navy, buildings for the government, waterworks, roads, sewerage systems, dams, bridges and the like. The government will look with

favor upon projects of value to the public, upon projects which employ labor in large amounts, upon projects which are to a high degree self-liquidating.

THE FINANCING OF THE PROGRAM OF EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an address by G. D. Strayer at the Institute of Education, held at Chapel Hill, N. C., June 29, 1934.)

Much of the legislation concerning the financing of education during the past three years has had for its purpose the restriction of expenditures. It is easy to understand the pressure brought to bear upon legislative bodies to limit taxation. Many well-meaning citizens are misled by an argument which proposes that education can be maintained at a reasonable level of efficiency even though expenditures are greatly reduced. This point of view fails to recognize the fact that the load which the schools have to carry has increased with the deepening depression.

There is little opportunity for older boys and girls to work. On this account they are to be found enrolled in our secondary schools. Younger children have less opportunity provided at home, and for this reason the demand for kindergartens and for nursery schools is greater than in times of prosperity.

The challenge presented to public education was never before so great. Much of the legislation which we have had is destructive. The time has come to face the issue and to demand legislation which will make possible a better service through the public schools.

Our schools must be kept open. We may not rest satisfied in a situation in which school terms are being reduced. Schools must reach every child in every state. At a time when government is accepting increased responsibility for every aspect of life, schools, the only institution set aside for the preparation for boys and girls and men and women for their responsibilities as citizens, must be maintained at a high level of efficiency.

There will be little dissent from the proposal that schools should be maintained and that their programs should be developed to meet the needs of the hour. There may not be as complete agreement upon the measures that should be taken to realize this purpose. It is proposed in this discussion to indicate the main features of the legislative program required to meet the emergency.

Under the leadership of the commissioner of education and in cooperation with the joint commission on the emergency in education of the National Education Association, there has been developed, through the agency of an advisory committee on emergency aid for education, a program of national support. This national advisory committee proposes that national support be granted as follows:

1. That $50,000,000 be provided and allocated to the several states to meet emergency needs during the current year.

2. "That in view of the fact that many communities will not be able to maintain their schools during the fiscal year 1934-35, a federal emergency appropriation of not less than $100,000,000 be made available, beginning July 1, 1934. It is proposed that this appropriation be distributed in an objective manner, determined by a board of which the United States commissioner of education shall be chairman and executive officer.

3. "Because of the instability of educational support in even the abler states, due to the shrinkage of local ability to support schools during the depression, the advisory committee proposes that the maintenance of the effectiveness of the schools throughout the nation will require support in order to insure the normal operation of schools. Accordingly, it is recommended that a substantial sum be distributed from the federal treasury to the various states to assist them in meeting this phase of the emergency. The committee proposes that the method of distribution should provide, first, that a flat sum, objectively determined, be distributed to all states; second, that a supplemental sum, objectively determined, but weighted to meet the needs of the poorer states, be included in the distribution; and, third, that the method of distribution be stated in the statutes, provided that a contingent fund not to exceed 10 per cent of the amount so provided for 1934-35 be reserved for distribution to states and local units to meet exceptional and unforeseen needs, under the direction of a board of which the United States commissioner of education shall be chairman.

4. "The committee proposes that local funds be released for school maintenance by (a) re-financing school district indebtedness or such municipal or county indebtedness as may have been incurred in behalf of the schools; and (b) providing federal loans to school districts or to municipal or county corporations where (in case of the latter) the loan is to be used for educational purposes; provided, that in both instances the loan shall rest on the security of delinquent taxes, frozen assets in closed banks, or other acceptable securities.

5. "Out of any new appropriations made for public works, not less than 10 per cent should be allocated for buildings for schools, colleges, and other educational enterprises, such grants to be made available provided that an approved survey has been made and that the survey shows the need for buildings; it being further provided that the survey is to be made under the direction of the office of education, that the cost of the survey be charged to the public works appropriation for school plants, and that such grants for such projects be made on a 100 per cent basis. It is proposed, as well, that in administering this fund, major attention should be given to the needs of rural schools.

6. "The committee recommends, as well, that a federal appropriation or allocation of $30,000,000 be made to assist students to attend institutions of higher learning for the period ending July 1, 1935."

This program of federal support is demanded by the current situation. There are more than a million boys and girls in the United States for whom no free school has been available during the current year. Other

millions have had their school terms reduced, some of them to as little as three or four months. Throughout the nation, even in urban communities, the program of education provided has been restricted, even though the demand of the hour is for a more adequate opportunity. Music, physical education, home economics, and manual training have been dropped. Kindergarten, night schools, and summer schools have been eliminated from the school program. And while this has been going on the federal government has been investing billions in recovery. Neither the states nor the localities have the possibility of increasing their tax revenue sufficiently or of providing the credit necessary for the maintenance of schools. Only through action of the federal government can the need be met.

But while we are seeking to secure legislation by the Congress which will provide federal support for education, we should insist that this support be granted without federal interference with the organization, administration and supervision of education by the several states. That this result is one that we have a right to demand is indicated in the early history of federal support. From 1785 down to 1862 grants of land and of money by the federal government were made to the states without any attempt by the federal government to supervise or control education. The principles of state and local autonomy were fully recognized. Beginning with the first Morrill act in 1862, the federal government entered upon a new policy. Support was made available for a particular type of education—in this first case, for colleges of agricultural and mechanic arts. More recent federal legislation has included not only a designation of the particular division of the school system to be supported but also provisions for review and approval of the curricula offered. This latter policy is contrary to our fundamental law and to our accepted practice of state and local autonomy in education.

The current emergency offers an opportunity to return to the earlier practice with respect to federal aid. It is neither necessary nor desirable that any federal agency should enter to control the expenditure of money made available to the several states. All that can legitimately be required is an audit that will establish the fact that the money granted by the federal government has been used for the purpose for which it was appropriated.

The principles already developed and found valid in the support of education within the state should be applied in the case of federal support. The purpose to be realized is the guarantee of a fundamental program of education to children throughout the nation. Money should be distributed upon an objective basis, taking account of the need for support and of the ability residing in each of the states. The techniques necessary for the enactment of legislation based on these principles have been outlined by Dr. Paul R. Mort, the director of the National Survey of School Finance, and are embodied in proposed legislation now before the Congress.

There can be no doubt concerning the necessity for federal action. The United States is in ever-increasing measure becoming one great

economic unit. Business and industry are organized on a national rather than upon a local basis. The wealth available for taxation is seven times as great in the wealthiest state as it is in the poorest state. In like manner, if one inquires concerning the amount of income available in relation to the number of children to be educated, he finds that the amount available per child is more than four times as much in the wealthiest state as in the poorest. These discrepancies in ability are clearly indicated by the fact that in one state the average expenditure for education amounts to $192 per child annually, while in another state the average expenditure for this purpose drops to $55 per child. Federal responsibility, however, does not rest wholly upon these variations in the ability of the several states to provide support for the educational programs. We live in an interdependent society. Our population is mobile. Boys and girls born and educated in one state move to other states as they reach adult life. We have even had large migrations of people from one section of the country to another. It is apparent that the well being of every section of the country is dependent upon the provision for education made in each of the several states. Ignorance cannot be segregated in the United States.

The response of the American people to the need for further national support will be dependent upon their realization of the great national purpose that is served by our schools and in their willingness to sacrifice for the sake of a great ideal. We may not hope for the perpetuation of our representative democracy and of the freedom which we enjoy except upon the basis provided in the education of all of the children of all of the people. The only time that the children of this generation may enjoy educational opportunity is now. We may postpone the building of roads or the construction of public buildings, but we cannot postpone the education of our children. A denial of educational opportunity now cannot but result in disaster in the years which lie ahead.

In conclusion it is important to call attention to the fact that money provided for schools by the federal government will be fully as effective in stimulating recovery as is money now being expended on other projects. The federal government is the only agency that can command the resources from tax revenues and from credit sufficient to meet the present emergency promptly. Failure to meet this emergency will eventually cost many times the amount needed to maintain schools. Human resources are at stake. Whoever is to blame for the economic crisis, the children of the country are certainly guiltless; yet the children are paying the penalty. The preservation and development of our society, as well as simple equity, demand that the nation assume a larger responsibility for the support of public education.

FEDERAL AID—BOON OR BANE

(Excerpts from an address by W. F. Russell before the Department of Superintendence, Cleveland, Ohio, February 27, 1934, as carried in School and Society, volume 39, pages 289-296, March 10, 1934.)

It is unnecessary for me at this time, for this audience, to give in detail the argument which justifies federal participation in the financing of education. We know that this is no new idea. It was advocated in the days of the Confederation. It was implied in the ordinance of 1785. It was suggested several times in the constitutional convention and was in mind when the general welfare clause was drawn. It was advocated both by Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson. Constitutional amendments to provide it were recommended to Congress by Madison and Monroe. Step by step, in the distribution of the national surplus, in the first Morrill act and in the succession of acts down to the present day, the federal government has played an increasing part in supporting education in the states. We also understand the gradual obsolescence of the taxing system which has tried to support education upon the proceeds of a tax upon the property of a limited taxing area. There was once a time when wealth, as measured by land and buildings, and educational burden, as measured by children in the district school, were roughly proportional from area to area and from state to state; but the growth of transportation and communication, the development of technology, the flight from country to city and the concentration of capital—all manifestations of the machine and power ages—have disturbed this balance. Financial resources and educational burdens within the borders of the states have been found to vary so widely from community to community that state equalization of financial support has been found necessary.

Following a similar line of reasoning, experts in school finance have come to believe that federal aid is necessary. From the study of efforts made by the state to assist localities to provide minimum educational programs, they have come to learn what was hidden from the layman—that, just as a remote district in many a state is unable to support even a minimum educational offering and in consequence state aid is needed, so an entire state, like Arkansas or South Carolina or South Dakota, may be similarly disqualified from being able to support as a state the kind of educational program that the American people deem to be the minimum. Even if there had been no depression, it would have been necessary for the national government to take a share in the financial support of education in order to maintain a minimum standard throughout the United States. Nineteen twenty-nine was a boom year in the stock market. Nineteen twenty-nine was the culmination of an era of great prosperity; 1929 marked a high point in the general use of automobiles and radios; but, even in that golden age, American children in many states in no small numbers went to hovels for schools, remained there for short terms and were taught by the

kind of ignorant teacher that starvation wages would employ. Federal aid would have had to come, depression or no depression!

But the economic conditions of the last four years have hastened a development which otherwise might have been long delayed. Decreases in incomes, shrinking property values, collapse of basic industries, the desperate state of agriculture and manufacturing, the failure of the banks—all these factors in whole or in part removed the ability to pay from a substantial part of the population. Taxes could be levied on real estate, but they could not be collected. The result is the lamentable situation of the moment. Schools are closed. Children are on the street. Teachers are paid in scrip or not at all. Essential services have been discontinued and institutions abandoned. This distress tugs at our heart strings. This social stupidity stirs us to action. One thing comes to mind. Let us strive to reform state laws and institute new modes of taxation; but the truth is that every time the federal government devises a new tax or increases an old one, it is all the more difficult for the states to correct their present systems. In fact, some tax experts are now advocating that all tax collections be made by Washington, because the federal government, by taxing incomes and imports and by its large sales taxes on automobiles, alcohol and tobacco, has removed from the states the only taxes which could be collected. Thus the real difficulty in the present educational situation has not been caused by the depression. It has merely intensified a difficulty that has been growing for many years. The federal government has absorbed the sources of revenues, and it must share these with the states and localities. Many of us, realizing this situation, have devoted our best efforts to this problem for many years; and we have worked harder than ever since the time of the last meeting of this department. Federal aid to education in some form some time is bound to come.

Now the question which I would discuss tonight is this: Shall we do America a service in bringing the federal government to the support of the schools? Are we in danger of destroying the American heritage? At the moment our schools are controlled by us. They are safe from the sinister influence of the small politician. Shall we sell our control of the mind of the American child?

It is said that he who pays the piper calls the tune. Like many an old adage, this is a half truth. Of course, it would have been possible for the laird of the castle to have made such an arrangement with the piper. He could have said that he would make no payment unless the piper played the particular tune he desired. He could specifically have retained discretionary authority, and himself have called the tune. But there are other ways of paying pipers. The laird might find one night on his estate a band of pipers, cold, wet, starving, because they had been paid in scrip. They might even have been forced to sell or pawn their pipes. There is nothing to stop the laird from saying that all who might wish to play at his feast would be fed, clothed, sheltered and provided with new pipes. Or the laird could

offer ten shillings to each piper who would play, regardless of what tune he chose. Or he could apply to the pipers' union and agree to pay the wage scale fixed by the code for 36 hours of piping a week, and then hang out a blue eagle. Or he could offer a fixed sum to all musicians, pipers included. It is not necessary that he who pays the piper call the tune. Whether he calls it or not depends upon the particular arrangement made between the two contracting parties.

I suppose that there are no schools in the world, even in the United States, so free from the domination by central authority as the schools of England, Scotland and Wales. There the control rests in education committees, subcommittees of governmental bodies elected locally. The schools of a borough or an urban district are quite free of domination by the central authorities, and even within a particular school system the details of the curriculum, the choice of textbooks, the nature of the instruction and the spirit of the school itself are often within the prerogative of the individual school, even of the individual teacher himself. Central authorities will bring influence to bear upon the local committees by hints, by the publication of comparisons and statistics, by research and by advice. One of the most important reorganizations of education in England was stimulated by a small brochure entitled "Some Suggestions for the Consideration of Teachers." In spite of this local autonomy, more than half of the bill for public education in Great Britain is paid by the central government, by Parliament in Westminster. Why is it that this system did not transfer control? Because the man who pays the piper does not choose to call the tune. Because the pipers would refuse to play if someone else called the tune. He pays half the salary of the piper; he pays half the cost of keeping the audience in health so that it can hear the tune when played. He takes a definite share in certain other expenses. Parliament does not say that it will grant the president of the board of education 88,000,000 pounds to use as he sees fit. It does not appropriate the equivalent of $427,000,000 to be used as the board of education, the central authority, may deem wise. The whole program is put down in black and white in detail, and administration thenceforth is automatic. This is what is meant by a government of laws, not a government of men. This is the plan which I hope we shall follow in the United States in the long run.

In the early days it was deemed satisfactory to distribute money in proportion to the number of children of school age, to the number enrolled or to the number in average daily attendance. Schemes were devised later to distribute funds in proportion to effort and need. This in turn has recently been succeeded by another series of formulae designed to give equality amongst the various localities. The first step was to secure a measure of the cost of the standard minimum educational program which should be offered to every child. It was then necessary to determine the rate of local taxation which would raise this sum in the richest district. Then each district in the state would be compelled to tax itself at the same rate upon an equalized assessment; and the

central authority would automatically provide the balance. This is distribution of school funds according to what is termed the principle of equality. According to this plan, one district within a state gets nothing. All the others get something, much or little according as they have heavy or light educational burdens, and in proportion as they are poor or rich.

But there is another principle of aid from central to local authorities which is finding favor. This is termed the principle of efficiency. The idea is that a free people cannot rest content with a bare minimum educational program. Education must be moving onward and upward. Certainly every child must have a certain minimum offering, but unless there is opportunity here and there for something better, for a new development, for a readjustment or advance, educationally we should be in the doldrums. There is a good deal to be said for encouraging "that extra something." Central authorities can well afford to shore up the entire educational structure. One of the greatest fallacies commonly believed in this depression is that distress is confined to schools which have been closed. Our people should realize that there is just as much distress where home economics has been eliminated, where physical education instructors have been discharged, where equipment has not been purchased, where supervisors have been eliminated, where the curriculum has gone back to the 3 R's. If we are to have an alive and alert system, we must go beyond a dead and uniform minimum. It is to provide and encourage development all along the line that the principle of efficiency was advanced. Under this formula something is given to every locality, large or small. Aid is given to help the poor and weak, but it is also provided to foster variation everywhere.

Now the amusing thing about this modern theory of school finance is this: When you grant a state aid upon the combination of these two principles, that of equality and that of efficiency, it comes out very close to the old school population basis. In fact, if the principle of equality and the principle of efficiency were to be applied to the nation as a whole, we should be safe in recommending to Congress that by far the best way to meet the immediate emergency in education would be to grant to each state the sum of $11 per pupil in average daily attendance for the school year 1932-33, with a slight additional amount for the less densely settled states. No board of strategy would be needed. No discretionary authority would be retained. Minimum programs would be cared for. Schools could be reopened at once. The whole financial structure would be propped up. Local control would be preserved. It would be the best way to meet the emergency.

I now find myself in a somewhat embarrassing position. When our committee finally came to an agreement in Washington on the particular program which we should advocate, we all said that we would stand firmly behind the six-point program: (1) $50,000,000 for immediate aid for the balance of this year to keep the schools open, to be administered on any basis by a board or individual in Washington; (2) $100,000,000 for next year for the same purpose, to be administered by a board in

Washington upon some objective basis; (3) a substantial sum (we thought of $300,000,000 or $400,000,000) upon the principles of equality and efficiency; (4) loans to the localities secured by frozen assets in banks and taxes anticipated; (5) grants for school buildings; and (6) $30,000,000 for college students.

I want to stand squarely behind this program. I want to urge your cooperation, but I must make plain that this means the whole program. The federal emergency relief administration has looked with favor on No. 1 and No. 6, and has now practically incorporated these suggestions in its program. It will probably look with favor on item No. 2. Items No. 4 and No. 5 are in line with certain other governmental policies. What we should fear is the passing over of item No. 3. There are many men and women close to the administration in Washington who cannot see the force or wisdom of a general grant to all the states to be administered upon an objective basis in an automatic way. The relief-minded (the first group which I discussed) wish to give the money to the relief administration. The political scientists of the New Deal distrust state and local government and want to give out federal money according to the dictates of a federal board or official. The advocates of distribution of state funds upon the basis of effort and need want to duplicate at Washington the older experience of the less advanced states.

These are powerful forces to combat. Right now, hearings are being held before Congress in Washington, upon the measures submitted to fulfill this six-point program. There the relief-minded will say their say, and if their point of view prevails, control will grow at Washington. The political scientists of the New Deal will advocate all items except the third, and power will grow at Washington. The older order of state financial experts will advocate effort and need, and centralization of school administration will develop in the nation just as it did in the states.

I shall agree with anybody upon any plan of national aid to education for the next six months. But for any time beyond that, it is my public duty, it is your public duty, it is the duty of the Department of Superintendence, to express not only our hopes but our fears. We have a plan for federal aid to education, expressed in the third point of the six-point program, which gives aid to all the states upon an automatic, objective basis. It has been carefully developed. It has been adequately studied. It has been tested. It will bring immediate relief in the emergency. It will leave the power in the states and localities where it should remain. It will enable the federal government to help pay the bill. Federal aid in any other form will tend to transfer the power away from the people. It will become repugnant to us. Mistakes made now may take years to correct; and federal aid of the wrong kind and the growth of the beginnings of educational despotism, however slight, will retard the development of American education for generations to come.

Let us stand wholeheartedly behind the whole program. Let us put

special emphasis upon the third, the advanced, step. Only if this is included, only if this becomes the basis for future action, will federal aid, so desperately needed at the moment, become a boon and not a bane.

ARGUMENTS FAVORING FEDERAL AID TO GENERAL PUBLIC EDUCATION

(Excerpts from the report of the National Advisory Committee on Education, pages 9-39, Washington, D. C., 1931.)

Federal participation in the education of the people of the states presents a problem of peculiar complexity, because the people of the forty-eight states live under a plural system of political jurisdiction—national, state, and local. Here the responsibility of the federal government for education is ill-defined. By virtue of the fact that education is not mentioned in the constitution, and by tradition and by practice, the primary obligation for the organization and conduct of education rests upon the states. The function of the federal government has largely been one of cooperation in fostering the education of the people under state jurisdictions.

The American tradition and practice of local autonomy in management of schools grew naturally out of the conditions of pioneer life in America. The frontier was characterized by the relative isolation and necessarily self-contained nature of community life. Hence was developed a unique and powerful habit of local responsibility and control which was so much taken as a matter of course that it was at first universally accepted as the only proper basis of federal relations to education.

From the Revolution to the Civil War, the federal government encouraged and financially aided education in the states. It endowed higher and common schools with lands, and made grants of surplus tax monies; but it did not attempt to regulate the purposes, define the programs, supervise the teaching, or otherwise control public education in the states. Throughout this long early period, its spirits and its acts were in harmony with the principle of state and local autonomy.

With the Morrill act of 1862, the federal government changed both its policy and procedure. Where before it had been solely interested in encouraging and aiding the states to provide educational facilities as a whole without emphasizing special phases of the curriculum, it now entered upon a program of stimulating and favoring with financial grants specialized types or aspects of education in order to extend them rapidly throughout the states.

There are national responsibilities for education which only the federal government can adequately meet.

From an early period of our national life, the leaders of the American people have recognized their obligation to cooperate in fostering the education of all the people, without regard to state jurisdiction.

The children of the people in all the states are neither more nor less the potential units of popular sovereignty when regarded as potential

citizens of the United States than when regarded as potential citizens of the various states.

The collective citizenship of the United States is not different from the aggregate citizenship of all the states.

The preservation of the spirit and the method of the American democratic civilization, which underlies all our governments, is an obligation of all the people, as expressing their will both through the federal government and the state governments.

The American people are justified in using their federal tax system to give financial aid to education in the states, provided they do this in a manner that does not delegate to the federal government any control of the social purposes and specific processes of education.

Such a policy is old, not new. It has been the accepted fact of the American people since the pre-constitutional period. The simple policy of making land and money grants to the states for education in general was followed up to the Civil War.

Such financial grants covering a considerable period in our history did not foster control of education in the state by the federal government. The grants were made in a manner to foster local initiative and self-government.

Federal money grants given since the Civil War were made to foster specific types of education believed to be necessary for special groups of people. Many of the acts granting these subsidies define limited specific purposes for which the monies granted may be used; they establish limiting conditions as to so specific a matter as length of class exercises; and they often provide that many details of the work are subject to the approval of federal officials with authority to reject plans and withold funds. True, these acts are not effective unless the conditions of the act are accepted by state legislatures. But when a state legislature, in order to secure the money grant, accepts those conditions, it thereby delegates to the federal government some of its own responsibility for control of the social purposes and specific processes of education.

Changing economic conditions in the United States have increased the income disparities of states without relieving them of a common national obligation to educate each citizen resident within their boundaries. The drift toward greater fiscal disparities is indicated by such evidence as we have. If this should prove to be the case, federal aid to education in general may prove to be a necessary fiscal policy.

Adequate data are not now available to prove on economic grounds whether federal grants to the states in aid of education are or are not justified. With the wide variations in the methods of taxation used in the various states and with the rapidly changing economic conditions, it is not at present possible to determine unequivocally whether federal aid to education or to other public services will tend to retard or to promote reforms in local systems of taxation. Adequate studies on these points are needed, if the American people are to settle this vital ques-

tion wisely in their own ultimate interest and not as a mere matter of guesswork, sentiment, and passing philanthropic impulse.

If federally collected tax money is used to give financial aid to the states, it should be given to aid education as a whole and not as special grants for the stimulation of particular types of training.

Our long experience shows that general federal grants do not tend to interfere with our essentially American method of keeping educational management as close to the people as is consistent with effective service.

The widely current notion that control of education always follows any and all types of financial grants is not verified by experience; this false generalization arises from our comparatively recent federal attempts to stimulate and standardize special types of education in the states through money rewards and deprivals. Federal control followed, not from financial aid as a major purpose but from its use as an instrument for enforcing certain specific educational policies and methods in the states.

Complete financial audit gives the publicity that protects the federal government and is an adequate safeguard against state expenditure of federal funds for anything outside the broad educational purposes contemplated.

Wisdom in state allocation and expenditure of funds given by the federal government is best guaranteed by full and detailed reports to the federal government. The printing and wide distribution of the same by the federal government will inform public opinion, the only competent check upon which popular government may rely in the long run.

FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

(Excerpts from remarks by Representative Ross A. Collins, of Mississippi, in the House of Representatives, Washington, D. C., June 13, 1933.)

I hold that education is distinctly a state function. Hence I should oppose vigorously any attempt on the part of the federal government to control public education in any of the several states. However, I do not admit that federal aid and federal control are synonymous.

Federal control of education would be the direction of educational administration for the several states from Washington; it would mean that the federal bureau, office, or department of education would determine the course of study, the qualification of teachers, the standard of proficiency of the pupils, the textbooks to be used, the method of instruction—the general set-up of the educational machinery by and for the states. This I oppose, and oppose vigorously.

Federal aid to the states for educational work, however, is simply the granting to the states for absolute and unrestrained administration by the states of federal money for the maintenance of the public schools of each state by state machinery.

There are those who would say that this practice is contrary to the principles of our government; that it breaks down our system of local

and state government. But does it? Does the giving to states of the money taken directly from the people of the states deny those people any rights? Or is this plan merely a practical expression of the theory that ours is a federal union of 48 sovereign states?

I think the latter is the case. In order to approach this question a little more intelligently, let us for a moment review the question of federal aid to the states. Since our government was established the federal government has given money and lands to the states. More than 70,000 acres of national lands were turned over to the newly created state of Ohio by the act of 1802, and since that time every state of the United States has benefited by federal generosity, or, more properly speaking, shared in the full benefits of a federal government. In 1837, $2,000,000 which had accumulated in the United States treasury was distributed among the states.

Most of the early land grants were made unconditionally. In other cases Congress stipulated that the funds should be used for schools or roads. Since 1912 the growth of a federal subsidy for the development of work by our states has been vast. There are a number of possible explanations of this trend. I prefer to believe the one which holds that it represented practical expression of the growing power of popular—of people's government. Due to the rapid growth of large-scale business in this country, money and material wealth became more and more concentrated in a few urban centers and the benefits thereof became less available to the people themselves and to the states. In recognition of this fact, in 1913 the amendment to the federal constitution enabling Congress to enact the federal income tax law was ratified. But this meant that not only would more money be taken from individuals having it, but, in general, it meant that more money would come from the states to the federal government. Then came the war, demanding in the various revenue taxes still more money from the states. And so there grew quite logically within the states a demand that some of the good from the concentrated wealth of a few of our citizens and some of the returns from the money which the federal government had obtained from the states be returned to the states for useful work by the states. This was not a move on the part of the states to give up state rights. Quite to the contrary. It was a new manifestation of a new kind of state right. The states sought to have a say in how their money should be spent for their people. They never yielded their power; they increased it. Yes; the amount of federal subsidy has grown, but an analysis of the figures shows that proportionately as there grew a demand from the federal government for a direct tax on the people of the states so grew the amount of federal money which in turn the states demanded should be paid them.

At the present moment the people of our states are actually confronted with the grave threat, the collapse of their public schools. Of course, the people, believing themselves citizens of a sovereign state of the union and citizens of the United States, turn to the federal government for aid, not only because many of the states themselves cannot

meet this problem, but because the problem in itself is national, and our federal government is concerned intimately with it. Ignorance knows no state lines. Children denied schooling in one state today become citizens of a low caliber in another tomorrow.

The principle of federal aid to the needy states for educational work is closely akin to the principle of state equalization funds for educational work, a principle now generally observed by practically all of the states of the union. Just as a state equalization fund in education seeks to provide that the children in even the poorest rural districts may have good schooling under competent teachers for a term of suitable length so federal aid asked for us by the states would help the children in our poor farm areas to have a decent start in life by getting at least a minimum of schooling. The fact that three-fourths of our states have established equalization funds shows that there is a growing sentiment for a more equitable distribution, if not of wealth, then, certainly, of the opportunity to procure wealth. One of the finest analyses of the theory, philosophy, and the practice of a state equalization fund was made a few years ago by one of our southern newspapers, the Richmond News Leader. This newspaper, after very thorough and complete scientific investigation of the subject, devoted its full effort to the establishment of the principle of a state equalization fund.

The seriousness of this situation incidental to the threatened collapse of our free public schools is generally recognized. Nine large national organizations of women are actively interesting themselves in this question. I have learned that the national representatives of these organizations, on the instruction of their respective groups, are all pooling their efforts in a campaign to maintain the American free public school. An article, "The Free School is Passing," in the Woman's Press, the official magazine of the Y. W. C. A., one of the organizations actively interested in this question, was published in its April issue setting out in concise form the gravity of the situation as it then existed. And nothing has happened since then to put the schools in better shape. This article, by Selma M. Borchard, vice-president of the American Federation of Teachers, I submit here to give this picture to you:

"One of the most devastating effects of the depression is the breakdown of the American free public school system. As a result our children are being denied the right to a free public education. The collapse of our public-school systems is not limited to any one state, nor to even one section of the country. In Florida, Georgia, Alabama, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Kentucky hundreds of the rural schools have closed for this year. In North Dakota, Texas, Idaho, Tennessee, Michigan, Wyoming, and Arizona the school officials report that unless relief comes to them, many of their schools will be forced to close soon. From Iowa, Connecticut, Oregon, Maine, and Minnesota come the authentic state reports saying that next year many of their schools, if they are kept open at all, will be kept open with private funds.

"Some localities are now trying to 'muddle through' by charging tuition. Under such a system those children who can't pay can't come to

school. Essential parts of the school system are being eliminated everywhere. Kindergartens, night schools, vocational training classes, medical and dental clinics, now more needed than ever, have been either eliminated entirely or seriously curtailed in practically every state in the union.

"The number of teachers has been reduced, while the number of pupils enrolled has increased rapidly, almost half a million in the last year alone. As a result, the size of classes has increased enormously everywhere, creating a sort of mass-production form of education.

"Teachers' salaries have been drastically cut, in some places as much as 50 per cent, in a few places 75 per cent. Worse still, many cities and counties have paid them in depreciated, nonmarketable commercial paper; others have not paid them at all. In a few states teachers are 'boarded around' among the parents of the pupils who can afford this form of tuition, as the community cannot pay their salaries. In four states teachers have volunteered to teach for nothing in order to keep open the schools.

"The school year is being shortened in most states. The United States office of education has estimated, on the basis of a survey just completed, that 4,400 rural schools will have to be closed early this year, as will all the schools in 170 cities.

"School-building programs are, of course, seriously curtailed. Consequently schools are dreadfully overcrowded everywhere. Over 35,000 schools are on a part-time schedule, running two or more shifts. Thousands of pupils are being housed in dilapidated portable buildings.

"Tax delinquency is the principal cause of the breakdown of the state and local school system. Banks either cannot or will not lend to local communities to maintain their schools. In 1930, 1,345 banks suspended operation; in 1931, 2,298 banks suspended operation. State and municipal paper now is generally non-marketable; taxes are unpaid. It is an indisputable fact that the local communities throughout the country are absolutely unable to raise the money to enable them to meet their legal and social obligations.

"Something must be done and done quickly to save the schools until local and state agencies become self-supporting again. A call has come from all states to the federal government to aid in preserving our American state-owned, state-controlled public school system."

FEDERAL SUBSIDIES FOR EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an article by A. F. MacDonald in the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, volume 129, pages 102-105, January, 1927.)

Is education, whether it be vocational training for high school students, better knowledge of crops for farmers, better knowledge of babies for mothers, or better knowledge of their economic potentialities for the physically handicapped, purely a local problem? That question

was well answered by John W. Abercrombie, Alabama State Superintendent of Education, when he said:

"Already over twenty millions of our people are residing in states other than those in which they were born, and it is no longer possible to permit a child to grow into citizenship in ignorance anywhere without endangering every other citizen everywhere."

Another objection frequently made to federal subsidies is that they are stifling local initiative, and that the people are sitting back in complacent indifference. Such a statement is manifestly absurd. Competent and impartial observers in every state of the union add the weight of their testimony to the vast mass of statistical data that without federal funds most of the states would never even have attempted problems they are solving today. When the records show four or five states carrying on the work of civilian rehabilitation or child hygiene in 1918 or 1920, and forty or forty-five doing it in 1926, largely with state funds and entirely through state officials, it is difficult to believe that local initiative is being stifled and that local responsibilities are being shirked.

An argument frequently raised against federal aid is that it tends to create a uniform mold into which all state administration must be cast; in other words, it serves as an excuse for federal officials to cram federal policies down the throats of the states. Nothing is further from the truth than charges of federal domination. The domination consists of a three- or four-day visit, once a year, by some federal official to each state, supplemented by a searching scrutiny of the state's accounts, and a most careful examination of the plans submitted by the state. In each case the plan of activities is prepared by the state itself through its own officials, and varies with their concept of their state's needs. The federal supervising bureaus have nothing more than a sort of veto power and they are careful to exercise that power with the very greatest infrequency. This summer I talked or corresponded with one hundred and forty-nine of the state officials administering the various subsidy laws for education. I missed only twenty-nine. These are the men and women who are "suffering" from federal bureaucracy, whose intimate knowledge of local conditions is being ignored, we are told, by ruthless federal officials. And every one of the one hundred and forty-nine, with not a single exception, declared in the strongest possible manner that there was no thought or question of federal domination, and that federal cooperation had been kindly and helpful in the extreme. Most of them went on to say that without the stimulus of federal funds their state programs would not have reached the point where they are today for the next fifty years. If that be domination, then the more domination, the better.

Perhaps the most potent argument of the opponents of the federal subsidy system is that it is economically unsound, because it results in a transference of wealth from the richer to the poorer states. Federal revenues are derived primarily, of course, from the wealthier states, while federal subsidies are paid out, generally speaking, on the basis of

population. The result is that some states get back far more than they pay in while others receive far less. Tables have been worked out by the distinguished Governor of Maryland to show that some states are receiving in federal subsidies less than one per cent of the amount they contribute to the federal treasury in the form of income taxes, while others are receiving anywhere from 100 to 300 per cent. Such tables are obviously misleading. They credit to New York state, for example, the amount of the income taxes paid in by the Union Pacific and the Southern Pacific railroads, which do not have a single mile of track east of the Mississippi river. Likewise they credit to New York the entire income tax paid by the United States Steel Corporation, which has more stockholders in Pennsylvania than it has in the Empire state. If the total wealth of the several states, or their total current income, or some combination of the two, were used as the basis of comparison, the results would be quite different. The disparities would be just about one-fourth as striking. Whatever the method of computation, however, it is obvious that federal subsidies are not distributed among the several states in proportion as they contribute to the support of the federal government. There seems to be no good reason why they should be. Probably it has never been suggested that river and harbor appropriations or federal postoffices should be proportioned to the share of federal taxation borne by each state. Now that such questions are being raised, they should be met squarely. Are we prepared to ignore the striking differences in the ability of the several states to support education, requiring each state to work out its own salvation—or condemnation? We compel the rich man, even though he be childless, or though he chooses to send his children to private school, to contribute to the support of the public school system. Are we going to permit the wealthier states to neglect their responsibility for the establishment of at least a national minimum of educational opportunity in this country? Or shall we recognize frankly that the federal subsidy system brings to the poorer states a measure of financial relief, and that it brings to all the states a stimulus and a leadership that could come from no other source than the federal government?

FEDERAL AID FOR EDUCATION

(Editorial in the High School Journal, volume 17, pages 43-45, February, 1934.)

Federal participation in the support of general public education is in the offing as one of the major enterprises of a planned national economy. The waste in human values inherent in the old district system of education was one of the principal reasons why in the march of human progress the district system had to give way to a larger unit of support and administration. Control passed from the district to the county, and as time went on the administration of first one and then another aspect of the educational enterprise passed to the state. In the course of time glaring inequalities of educational opportunity as between the

counties of a given state became more pronounced, and in order to eliminate or reduce these inequalities, the state gradually assumed entire control of the major aspects of public education and participated to a larger degree in the support of schools. For many years now there has been a marked tendency in our thinking for the state to assume the entire burden of support (as happened in North Carolina) and to control and administer all essential aspects of public education. State expenses now for public education are regarded as an investment which the state makes in its own well-being, stability and perpetuity. Thus the state has become "conscious" of its responsibility and its obligation in the matter of providing for all its youth adequate educational opportunities.

While this has been going on there has also been a growing consciousness of a limited responsibility on the part of the federal government in the support of public education. Just as inequalities at first became more pronounced as between the districts of a county and later between the counties of a state, now inequality of opportunity as between the states has actually become a matter of national concern. State lines in most matters of major importance in the common life of the nation have all but been obliterated, and will never again, perhaps, mean what they once meant under a laissez-faire economy. Since the passage of the first Morrill act of 1862 the federal government has assumed responsibility for one aspect or another of our educational enterprise and has appropriated large sums of money for the promotion and the support of special phases of our total educational program until it now carries on so many and so diverse educational functions that a federal commission studying this matter some two or three years ago was not sure, after diligent and prolonged study, that it had actually listed all of the educational enterprises in which the federal government participates. Already public education in the United States, although still regarded as a function of the state theoretically, is national in its conception, national in its outlook, and national in its obligations. It is now a "constructive national tool" in the words of Elwood P. Cubberly, and "an instrument of the first importance in molding and shaping the destinies of the people." To quote Cubberly further, it is "the greatest of all undertakings for the promotion of the national welfare."

When President Roosevelt inaugurated the New Deal the simple formula he followed was to take both the idle capital and the idle labor of the nation and put them to work under a planned national economy. The extent to which the federal government has set up codes for the control of production, money and banking, industry and the rest, is evidence sufficient that we are in the midst of one of the greatest revolutions civilized man has known. Just what the new social order that is emerging is to be like no one is quite sure. It looks as though rugged individualism and the capitalistic regime will have to go, or at least be controlled in the interest of the common good. The economic system will continue to have its place but it will occupy a role secondary to that of social well-being. It will be con-

trolled to human ends and on a national scale. A few years of such control, and America will not likely again exalt it to a place of dominance in the national life. All of which means inevitably that the federal government is going to be forced to use education as a national tool and to participate in the support of general education, not limiting its participation to specialized phases of education as hitherto. If the control and support of public education should be left wholly to the separate states, it is seriously to be doubted whether the states single-handed and each for itself alone will be able to combat successfully the organized forces behind the nation-wide propaganda against decent expenditures for schools. Those forces have been operating on a national scale in opposition to schools since 1923. Many state legislatures, particularly in the backward states, certainly have not been able to cope successfully with them in recent years, and it is seriously to be doubted whether any state single-handed will be able to do so—to the extent of providing the educational opportunities for effective citizenship that the New Deal in all its implications makes mandatory. Greater opportunity for leisure, for creative living, and for cultural advancement under an intelligently planned social economy will greatly increase the demands upon the schools and will multiply their opportunities to the extent that education must inevitably become a concern of supreme national importance, the cost of which must be shared in larger measure by the federal government.

NATIONAL GOVERNMENT MUST TAKE PART IN FINANCING EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an article by Paul R. Mort, reproduced by courtesy of the Nation's Schools, from the January, 1934, issue, pages 20-22.)

That federal support for public education is inevitable must be the conclusion of anyone who will inspect the findings of the National Survey of School Finance.

Whatever the states may do in improving their local situations, the contrast between states when their own potentialities have been realized points to the absurdity of any stand that will place the complete responsibility for the support of education upon the states. Arkansas at the height of prosperity provided in the poorest district a type of educational program that could be purchased for an annual expenditure of less than $12 per pupil. New York at that time provided for its poorest districts a type of educational program that could be purchased for approximately $78 per pupil.

Only those who have inspected the schools operated on these different levels have any conception of the contrast in opportunities afforded. The differences in these opportunities are differences in degree rather than in kind. In the better financed schools the whole state is set to discover needs, interests and abilities of every boy and girl and to serve those needs. Well selected and highly trained teachers have their work supplemented by specialists who help them diagnose the physical,

social and intellectual needs of their pupils and assist them in providing materials and activities to meet those needs.

As we pass from the better supported schools to the poorly supported schools we find fewer services established for the discovery and development of individual boys and girls. Children entering school fail to find the broader facilities for their transition from the life of the home into the life of the school. School rooms are lacking in equipment and in the social, intellectual and artistic elements found in better supported schools. Teachers are less well prepared to understand the needs of boys and girls and are less well equipped with materials to use in meeting these needs. The most meager help is available to supplement their services on the physical side and little or no help is available on the intellectual side.

The National Survey of School Finance analyzed the situation in thirty-two states to discover the type of program toward which each of these states should work as a minimum objective. It is probable that under the best conditions the objective set for each state will not be attained in less than two decades. Yet when these desirable ends have been achieved the best to which Arkansas can look forward is the type of educational program that was purchased in 1924 for $24 per pupil annually. This may be contrasted with the educational programs to which such states as New York, New Jersey and California may confidently aspire and which cost $115 per pupil in 1930, or that to which Minnesota may aspire and which cost $80 per pupil in 1930.

Even when differences in purchasing power of money are taken into consideration, the National Survey of School Finance demonstrates clearly that the contrasts hold good not only with respect to present conditions but also with respect to the conditions that will exist when each of the states has faced its school finance problem squarely and provided educational opportunities in accordance with its reasonable abilities.

Can the American people look with equanimity upon such a situation? With the states doing the best that may be expected of them, the minimum conditions in the abler states would still be at least four times as expensive as those of the poorer states. Are we to be satisfied with the situation that will deny to vast groups of boys and girls the demands of the American ideal? The answer must obviously be "No." The unsatisfactory nature of the state as the ultimate financing unit can no longer be glossed over by the excuse that if states were to put their own houses in order the educational situation would be corrected. The national government must take a hand in the financing of education.

But what about control, the bugaboo that has played so large a part in the thinking in this field in recent years? A study of the report of the National Survey of School Finance will show that considerable headway has been made in laying this ghost. But even if this were not so, the facts reviewed clearly indicate that it is time for those honestly interested in the contributions of public education toward carrying out the great experiment in popular government, to face squarely the

fact that national support must come and to work out ways and means by which this may be done. The time for academic discussion of this problem is past. What is needed now is a practical attack that will assume what is patently a fact—that the health of the public school system of America demands national support on an intelligent basis and at the earliest possible moment.

THE CRISIS IN EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an article by W. J. Cooper in *Scribner's Magazine*, volume 93, pages 129-131, February, 1933. Republished from *Scribner's Magazine* with permission of the editors. Copyrighted 1933 by Charles Scribner's Sons.)

Many children returning after the holidays found the doors of the schools closed. Other schools are limping along with inadequate teaching force, an inadequate supply of textbooks, obstacles which are seriously limiting the educational advantages of which the American people once boasted. The depression has produced a crisis in education and raises the question as to whether we are to consider education a luxury or a fundamental necessity. Despite the financial difficulties in which states, counties, and communities find themselves, it is a serious question whether educational facilities should not be strengthened as a community service rather than curtailed, thereby injecting another element of insecurity and demoralization into a situation which has already had enough shocks. Economies can undoubtedly be made, but such economies should be the result of careful study. The obvious methods of decreasing teaching force and cutting textbook appropriations to the minimum may well be the very essence of false economy.

The National Survey of School Finance has gone far enough to deal with this whole question of state support of education. It now appears clear that the state and the nation together must finance the schools. This cannot be done unless legislatures of the various states take some drastic action with regard to local control in many states. If each legislature would provide for a state board of education elected by the people which would appoint the state superintendent or commissioner of education for an indefinite time it would make a great difference. The state could then assume the support of the schools since it would have a state official in actual control who could make a report for the state at large. To equalize educational opportunity for the whole nation only a special fund from the federal government would be required. Last year about $10,000,000 was distributed to the various states in aid of vocational education. It is true right now the federal government is having a difficult time financing the projects which have already been loaded upon it and balancing its budget. It seems, though, that in a country as rich as ours, we should be able to do as well by our schools as European countries do by theirs. And it would seem that we can sacrifice many other things before "we take it out on the children."

NEGATIVE REFERENCES

FEDERAL POLICIES IN EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an address by Alexander Inglis before the Department of Superintendence, February 27, 1922, as carried in the Educational Record, volume 3, pages 114-125, January-December, 1922.)

In the determination of federal policies for education at the present time are involved two distinct problems of major importance. One of these problems concerns the policies to be followed with respect to federal subsidies. The other concerns the policies to be followed in the organization of federal agencies which deal with education. Of the two problems, that which concerns policies of federal subsidies involves questions of such fundamental importance to education and to government that, by comparison, the problem of the exact form of organization of federal agencies sinks into insignificance.

The fact cannot be too strongly emphasized that at the present time the problem of the policies to be pursued with respect to federal subsidies is by far the most important problem involved in the relations of the federal government to education. The whole development of education throughout the country is fundamentally affected by policies of federal participation in its support and control.

Lest there be any doubt concerning my attitude toward federal subsidies for public school education, let me state at the outset that I am totally opposed to any participation by the federal government in the support and direction of our public schools, not only because I believe it involves policies subversive of our entire theory of government, but also because I believe it involves policies which in the long run are bound to be bad for education itself. I believe that the policy of granting federal aid in support of public school education is fundamentally unsound as a policy of government; that it is dangerous for education; that it is bad economic policy; and that it is essentially unfair.

Having thus taken a position which probably appears extreme to the majority of this body, I am in duty bound to give my grounds for assuming that position. But before attempting this it is necessary to clear the ground of the jungle growth of tangled thought which may interfere with the free swing of our axe at the deadly upas tree of federal subsidies.

In the first place let us recognize that in all parts of this country public education is very, very far from being that which we should all like to see it, that in parts of the country it is almost unbelievably bad, that vocational education has scarcely begun to be recognized, that the amount of illiteracy and of near-illiteracy is alarmingly great, that attention to physical education throughout the country is almost negligible, that our large foreign population constitutes a serious problem for education and for society, that most country children do not have

anything like a fair opportunity for education, that in many sections of the country short school terms make effective education all but impossible, that a large part of our teachers lack proper education, training, and experience—let us recognize these and many defects of education too numerous to catalogue. They are conditions which cry aloud for reform in the appealing voices of children deprived of their rights as American citizens. They are undoubted and indubitable facts which cannot be ignored.

But it is a far cry from recognition of the defects and needs of education to the conclusion that those defects should be or will be remedied and those needs met by some form of federal subsidies. Such a conclusion has no necessary relation to the single premise of present inefficiency, and denial of a policy of federal subsidies does not for a moment imply any unwillingness or unreadiness to take effective steps for the improvement of existing conditions. It is sheer demagogism to charge those who oppose federal subsidies with failure to appreciate the needs of education or with unreadiness to improve existing conditions. The problem to be faced is not one which involves the question of recognizing and remedying those conditions: it is one which involves solely the question of the best methods to be employed. It is not a question of whether we shall try to meet the needs of education. It is a question of whether we shall call upon the federal government to participate in the support and control of public education or rely on those means that have in the past been almost wholly responsible for the development of a system of education which, in spite of all its defects and shortcomings, constitutes one of the greatest achievements of the American democracy.

Back of all arguments for federal subsidies for education lie two premises which are worthy of consideration: (1) That there is great need for improvement; (2) that states and communities have shown themselves unwilling or unable to remedy the grave deficiencies which are readily recognized. The first of these premises is undoubtedly sound and need not be debated. The second premise has by no means been established and deserves far more serious consideration than it has received. It is well worth while to consider briefly both the question of the readiness of states and communities to improve educational conditions and the question of their ability properly to support education.

Are states and communities unwilling or unready to assume and perform their proper responsibilities for public education and to remedy existing defects? There can be no doubt that all states have in some degree been delinquent in provision for important educational needs. There can be no doubt that many states have long permitted intolerable conditions to continue. Fundamentally important educational needs have long been neglected by states and communities. We cannot too strongly condemn such neglect. But the facts of the situation have not always been considered carefully by those who would cut the Gordian knot of education with federal subsidies and by federal participation in the support and control of public education. Without diminishing in the

least our disapproval of defects in state school administration, we should recognize certain facts which in part explain, though they do not excuse, some of the conditions which we so strongly regret.

It is a fact that some of the conditions which we criticise are the direct results of our very attempts to improve education. An example of this is found in the problem of teacher supply, a problem in no small degree created by our attempts to extend facilities for education and to extend the amount of schooling provided. More schools, more children in school, and an extension of provisions for compulsory attendance—these things have created a demand for teachers that could not possibly be met in any brief period and that cannot be met over night by legislative fiat.

A second fact to be kept in mind when we examine the delinquencies of states and communities is the fact that it is only recently that even educators have really become conscious of actual conditions. It took a great war and the draft to make us realize the perils of illiteracy, the demand for Americanization, and the needs of physical education. It has taken a new science of education and comprehensive surveys to bring existing conditions and needs to the consciousness even of specialists in education. It is not too much to say that our conceptions of public education have been all but revolutionized within the past two decades, and it is a legitimate question whether we have not attempted to progress too rapidly. Certainly we cannot criticize states and communities for their failure completely to adjust their educational systems to all the multitudinous needs that have been recognized in their fullness and actually created only within a decade or less.

It is true, of course, that many defects of education have long been recognized and are still to be remedied. But it is also true that within recent years authorities in almost every state have been trying hard, and have been succeeding gradually, to remedy those defects. There are few states which at the present time have not fairly definite plans for the elimination of the short school term, for the removal of illiteracy, for Americanization, for improvement in physical education, for the development of practical and vocational education, for the improvement of the teaching force, and for most of the other improvements which might be considered as likely subjects for federal subsidies. In all parts of the country the disclosures of the selective draft, extensive surveys, and criticism from within and without have stung the public conscience to the quick, and there is observable an almost feverish endeavor to blot out the delinquencies of the past. Is this to be chilled by the cold blast of the federal subsidies and federal interference? I for one pray that it may not be.

But it may be said, and it has been said, that some states have not the resources or wealth to permit the proper development and care of education unless they receive assistance from without. This has been stated more frequently than any attempt has been made to establish its truth. The fact is that at present we have no means of knowing what the available wealth of any state is, and if we had such informa-

tion we have no way of determining how poor a state must be to require federal assistance for the maintenance of an effective system of public education. If there are states actually unable to support an efficient system of education, the number is certainly small. In the speaker's judgment not a single state in this country is financially unable to maintain an efficient school system. The fact is that those states which cry poverty are usually the very states which least have attempted to provide for anything like an honest system of assessment valuation and which have not yet learned what it means to provide for an efficient system of taxation. It is incumbent on those who argue for federal relief to prove that states are financially unable to meet the demands for education.

That states vary in resources and in taxable wealth is obvious. What then? Shall we for that reason attempt an equalization of wealth throughout the country for school support? Any such procedure can mean but one thing—the complete nationalization of educational support and control. Until we are ready to do that we must ignore national differences in resources and in taxable wealth. It is clear, of course, that the policies of equalization in support within states are a totally different proposition from any national equalization in school support, since the state is already the recognized agency of control and administration. Equalization of support is feasible and proper only within the unit of control.

The practice of granting federal subsidies for education is bad governmental policy. The moment anyone supports such practice he is forced to choose between the two horns of a vicious dilemma: either he must advocate a policy of granting subsidies without provision for their supervision, accounting, and control; or he must advocate a policy of granting subsidies with definite provision for some control over their uses. In the one case he contemplates the expenditure of public funds with little or no assurance that they shall actually be expended so as to accomplish the ends designed; in the other case he contemplates interference in the control of education by those primarily responsible for its administration in the several states—and that at long distance and with respect to special projects. On the one hand he faces the example of the wasteful dissipation of public lands and public money granted to the states throughout the nineteenth century; on the other hand he faces the example of the intolerable interference with educational policies involved in the Smith-Hughes act. There is no escape from this vicious dilemma, either horn of which involves bad governmental policies.

Nor can it be argued that the federal government can safely delegate authority and responsibility for the proper and effective use of federal subsidies to the state authorities. In all probability state departments of education can be relied on to see to it that federal funds are honestly expended for the purpose for which they were granted, at least within the letter of the law. But the appropriation of funds is determined primarily by state legislatures, and by their juggling of budget items and the assignment of budgetary appropriations it is perfectly possible

to defeat the whole intent of federal subsidies. This the federal government is powerless to prevent, unless possibly by an intolerable and unheard of form of federal control. Even the famous (or infamous) "fifty-fifty" policy of federal subsidies can guarantee only that at a given time additional state funds shall be expended and additional attention paid to the special object of the subsidies—always with the possibility that by the manipulation of state funds, of the state budget, and of appropriations, the state may rob Peter to pay Paul and the general development of education be advanced not a bit.

Within the brief space of seven years, beginning with provisions for the Smith-Lever act of 1914, there has developed rapidly a tendency for the federal government, through subsidies to the several states, to do by indirect means what it has not the power to do directly. Within that short period have come the Smith-Lever act for extension work, the Smith-Hughes act for vocational education, the good-roads act, the act for industrial rehabilitation, the maternity act, and the extensive proposals of the Towner-Sterling bill. Whatever be the protestations of those responsible for these measures and whatever be their declarations of intent, it is clear that we have been developing rapidly a degree of federal participation in the support and control of activities over which previously the power of the state has been supreme. Let us not be deceived. All acts providing for federal subsidies in aid of education carry with them the dynamite of federal participation in the control of education and the determination of educational policies. When that bomb explodes it will be of little service to have their advocates protest that they did not know their measures were loaded. The "fifty-fifty" policy is one of the most subtly dangerous inventions of modern federal politics, at least as far as education is concerned.

If the policies of federal subsidies were ones which involved bad governmental practice but could be shown to be favorable to educational development, one might be inclined to submit to governmental defects for the sake of educational gains. However, in the judgment of the speaker, the practice of granting federal subsidies to the several states in supposed aid of education is not only bad governmental policy but a policy which in the long run interferes with the proper development of education itself.

It is always possible to give a temporary stimulus to any enterprise by means of a special subsidy, and education in any locality can always be raised temporarily to a higher level by means of aid from without—at least as far as the special object of the subsidy is concerned. Such a practice, however, appears to have an inevitable tendency to result ultimately in the lowering of the educational morale of the local public through the lessening of local initiative, interest, and responsibility. The inherent defect of outside aid is that it operates to sap the vigor of local responsibility. Paternalism in any form inevitably generates a sense and practice of dependence. Once begun, dependence on outside support or control demands constantly increasing operation of the outside agency, and the ultimate result can only be reliance on that

outside agency. Some of us believe that within the state such a result is inevitable and, all things considered, eminently desirable. Are we ready yet to go further and look toward the complete nationalization of educational support and control? Such is the legitimate expectation if we continue on the road which we have entered within the past decade. We should call a halt. Certainly we should understand clearly the policies on which we have embarked. Again let us not be deceived by the disclaimers of any intent to develop any federal centralization of education. We must judge from the character of their acts and of their recommendations rather than from their statements of intent.

Whenever federal subsidies are granted in aid of special phases of education or to meet special needs of education a serious difficulty arises in educational administration. The general policies of school administration must be determined by state and local authorities. Upon them, with their knowledge of local conditions, of local needs, and of local sentiment, must rest the responsibility in general for the determination of educational policies, for the balancing of various forms of educational development, for the distribution of available funds according to a well-defined program of educational development. Now steps in the federal government and says: "Unless you are willing to waive your rights to participate in public funds which in part have been derived from the wealth available in your state and which otherwise might have been open to taxation for your educational needs, you must give particular attention to these special projects which the federal government is fostering. If you wish to take advantage of the federal subsidies, you must allot so much additional state money to these projects. You must change your plans for the development of education in your state, and you must let us determine in part the educational policies to be followed." Theoretically it is possible for the state to waive its rights to federal funds; practically and politically, however, infamous "fifty-fifty" policy forces the state to accept the federal subsidies and to modify its educational policies to meet the demands of the federal government. Such long-distance interference to school administration may be desirable. In the judgment of the speaker it is vicious.

The practice of granting federal subsidies for education is not only bad governmental policy and bad educational policy; it is also bad economic policy. It would seem to be a principle of practical finance that wastefulness in the expenditure of public funds is in direct proportion to the remoteness of the appropriating agency from the source of supply. On the whole, communities are less wasteful than counties, counties less wasteful than states, and states far less wasteful than the federal government. People can see the uses to which is put money taken from them for expenditure within the community; they keep some track of county expenditures, they are not without thought for state funds, but they lose all sense of responsibility and sometimes all conscience when it comes to the matter of federal funds. The wastefulness of the federal government, even in matters in which it is primarily concerned and in which it acts directly, has become proverbial. When

it reaches out into fields with which Congress is but little acquainted and with which it can deal but indirectly, the federal government appears to proceed almost without chart or compass. In education, Congress can but reach out into the dark, since it can deal but indirectly with educational administration.

When states provide for the collection and distribution of funds for education they can do so on the basis of a reasonably definite knowledge of the needs and resources of the schools within the area over which they have control. Special aid may be granted where special need can be shown. Special projects can be subsidized on the basis of known facts, and it is within the power of state authorities to supervise the uses to which the state money is put. This is not so with the federal government. It must appropriate federal funds more or less blindly and without any real knowledge of the amounts needed. It must yield to political exigencies and apportion its subsidies in such a way that all states, or a majority of them, receive equivalent benefits, regardless of their merits and needs. No way has yet been devised to place the granting of federal subsidies on anything like a sound economic basis, and it is doubtful whether the apportionment of federal subsidies on any sound economic basis would ever receive the support of Congress.

Finally, it may be stated that most federal subsidies for education are essentially unfair—unfair not because they operate to equalize the burdens of educational support but because they fail utterly to accomplish that end or even to attempt it. In the past, federal subsidies have had no relation to ascertained needs of the several states nor to the extent to which states have exerted themselves to provide for educational development. They have been granted to states indiscriminately on the basis of such and such elements of population or the census distribution of educational conditions. States which have extended themselves for the development of vocational education are placed in the same category as those which have never lifted a hand to assist in its development, and funds are distributed not with reference to demonstrated needs and efforts but solely on the basis of population distribution. This is fundamentally unsound and unfair, but it is doubtful that federal subsidies for education could be secured if Congress were asked to distribute funds on any other basis than one involving an indiscriminate apportionment.

THE REAL PERIL OF FEDERAL SUBSIDIES

(An article by John J. Tigert, reproduced by courtesy of the Nation's Schools, from the July, 1934, issue, pages 12-15.)

Gradually the federal government has been assuming powers that were originally exercised by the states and local units of government. The depression has greatly accelerated the tendency toward greater federal participation in the affairs of the states and the people. In fact,

the process has developed more rapidly during the present emergency than at any time in our history.

The bulk of our citizenship entertains more than an ordinary degree of appreciation of the courage, skill and energy of President Roosevelt in coping with these most perplexing problems. His initiative was highly instrumental in restoring the confidence of the American people at a time when their faith in leadership, both of a public and a private character, was all but lost. The nation owes the President a vast debt of gratitude. It should be observed, however, that the whole recovery program has been carried forward on an emotional basis, similar to the spirit in which we have been accustomed to prosecute wars.

This emotional flavor is mentioned not by way of condemnation, for I appreciate this was essential to provide popular enthusiasm for the President's plans, but in order to call attention to the fact that social movements attended by phenomena of this kind frequently take on a different aspect with the return to normal feeling and thinking.

Let us assume that the emergency measures which the President has brought forward have saved us. Certainly his handling of the banking situation was superb. Without federal assistance, it is probable that the whole banking system of the country would have crumbled into chaos, bringing unspeakable tragedy in its wake. It may be conceded that without federal succor the railroads would have gone to pot. Who can imagine what dire consequences would have followed such an event? Unquestionably the agricultural situation has been critical ever since the inflation stimulated by the World War. Although it is still far from satisfactory, there have been unquestioned advances.

Everyone who takes a modicum of interest in schools is aware of the pitiable plight precipitated upon the nation's schools by the economic stringency. There is no need to rehearse the tale of woe of the schools closed, of terms shortened, of teachers and studies eliminated, of salaries reduced and unpaid, of countless children neglected and unprovided for.

I am not questioning these various programs which have been projected during an emergency. How much of this emergency program will finally become permanent is entirely another question. Some persons evidently anticipate that we are to go still further on the road to federal paternalism. Others are equally confident that there will be a reaction toward state and individual rights. Time alone will answer this question. Let us make a calm examination of the necessity and wisdom of the federal government's embarking upon the financial support of public schools as a permanent policy under normal conditions.

There is no conveyance by the states, in the federal constitution, to the federal government of power in relation to schools. If the federal government is to be justified in participating in the educational program of the states, it can be done only under a very specious appeal to the general welfare clause in the preamble. Possibly in this way most anything might be included within the power of the federal government.

Many advocates of federal subsidies for the schools do not believe

that federal control or federal interference is involved in federal support. Inevitably federal control must accompany federal support. My experience in handling federal subsidies for education under the limited acts which are now in existence has taught me that you must either have federal control and interference or you must have misappropriation of funds and waste. The method, whereby the federal government has stimulated certain types of education in the states through lands and monies under the Morrill, Smith-Hughes, Smith-Lever and related acts, is well known.

It is interesting to observe that this policy was inaugurated during an emergency in which the very existence of the federal government was at stake. The first Morrill act was signed by Abraham Lincoln while the Civil War was in progress. There was profound anxiety as to the ability of the union to preserve itself. Trained man power, food and materials that would provide the sinews of successful war might prove insufficient. Accordingly, the act made large land grants, subsequently followed by cash subsidies, to institutions in the states which would teach agriculture, the mechanic arts, and provide military training.

Higher education at that time was largely confined to general culture and professional training in the old established occupations. Sooner or later it was inevitable that a nation like the United States, carved out of a vast undeveloped territory, would have to provide for the teaching of the scientific principles which apply to the development of land and its resources. It was just as evident that the greatest industrial nation of all time would have to have technical and engineering schools. In this instance, national policies adopted in an emergency proved helpful and necessary for the permanent welfare of the people and the country generally. Certain other federal subsidies came into existence in the crisis incident to the World War. For example, the Smith-Hughes act was passed about that time.

Federal grants which go to the land grant colleges and universities are checked by the U. S. office of education. The Smith-Hughes funds are now merged into the office of education. The Smith-Lever and various other acts relating to agricultural education are administered by the United States department of agriculture. The office of education has never found it necessary to interfere seriously with the operation of the land-grant colleges in the use of the Morrill funds, although opinions of the attorney general of the United States indicate that such interference is possible.

Only once as commissioner of education did I find it necessary to recommend that the funds available be withheld because of obvious waste in certain institutions. The federal board for vocational education has required the state boards to submit definite and detailed plans in advance for the expenditures of funds appropriated under the Smith-Hughes act. This board has maintained a regional organization and regular inspection. During the time that I served on the board, we

found it necessary frequently to withhold funds or require adjustments so that the money would not be misused by the state boards.

The department of agriculture has always kept a close supervision over the funds dispensed through it. It has a policy of rigid inspection. The federal board of maternity and infant hygiene, which was composed of the surgeon general of the public health service, the chief of the children's bureau, and the commissioner of education, operated for eight years upon a basis similar to the federal board for vocational education. The states were required to submit their plans for the approval of the federal board. There were a number of states which refused to cooperate with this board and would not accept the federal funds under its management.

It is an unfortunate fact that the supervision of educational affairs is still highly involved in politics in most of the states, the chief educational officer being compelled to engage in partisan campaigns. The same is true of local school officers, particularly in the county and similar units, with the general exception of city officers. This promiscuous handling of school matters by politicians, long deplored by practically all educational bodies and leaders, greatly complicates the efficient handling of educational funds and in large measure accounts for the necessity of some kind of federal control to prevent misapplication. Some advocates of federal aid to schools have recommended that the money be turned over to the state officials and divided in proportion to the number of children of school age or some similar principles. Such a method of distribution, with the schools subject as they are to political exploitation, could end only in much waste and eventual scandal.

It is common knowledge that, for reasons akin to those mentioned, state funds which have been provided for the schools have been often misapplied and sometimes wrongfully withheld. Legislatures have tried to cope with this problem by passing acts attempting to make the school funds sacred or inviolate with varying degrees of success. Possibly a dozen states have made considerable progress in a program of professionalizing the administration and supervision of the schools. There is no immediate prospect that the schools can be taken out of politics in many of the remaining states.

Another factor which adds to the difficulty in the efficient use of federal funds for schools is the fantastic assumption that the average citizen has concerning federal money. Most people consider money coming from Washington like the gifts they get at Christmas time. They seem to forget that federal money, like state, county, district, and city money, must be raised by taxation. It has been well established in practice that money collected by taxation will be expended with less waste near the source.

Reason and experience both indicate that federal money cannot be expended wisely and efficiently except by exercising federal control and supervision and even then there is considerable waste; witness, for example, the huge pork barrels, such as the appropriations for rivers and harbors and other matters which are the result of logrolling, trad-

ing, and political self-interest. If we embark upon a program of turning over federal money to schools without any strings attached, it is only a question of time until the waste, extravagance and misuse of these funds will result in a reaction or a change. The alternative is federal control.

The soundness of a policy of federal aid does not depend upon the ease with which money may be made available for the schools, the amount that can be secured, the promptness with which obligations are met, and considerations of this kind. The answer to this whole question should be determined in the light of the interests of the people and the welfare of the country.

Is federal control of school matters consistent with the national welfare? The amount of supervision which will be necessary to promote the honest and efficient expenditure of money will bring us face to face with a peril that may eventually lay the ax at the roots of American institutions. The administration of schools in this country has been a necessary and appropriate corollary of representative government. The Declaration of Independence proclaimed emancipation from tyranny and called attention to the establishment of government by the consent of the governed.

Closely conforming to monarchal ideas, systems of education in European countries have been administered by individuals who are the creatures of a central government. The organization, the courses of instruction, the selection of personnel, the methods of teaching, and vital matters of this kind rest with a minister of education or similar officer in some European countries. In the United States we have hoped that both government and schools could be placed under the direction of the people themselves or their representatives.

Unquestionably, democratic government has some weaknesses. It is probably less efficient than a government under an absolute monarch or a dictator who is able and honest. The best apology that can be offered for popular government was advanced by the New England statesman, Fisher Ames, who was indirectly quoted by Emerson in his Essay on Politics: "Fisher Ames expressed the popular security more wisely when he compared a monarchy and a republic, saying that a monarchy is a merchantman, which sails well, but will sometimes strike a rock and go to the bottom; while a republic is a raft, which could never sink, but then your feet are always in water."

If we turn over to the federal government the responsibility of the operation of the schools, we have forged the weapons whereby some able and self-seeking individual or group may some day transform our political, social and economic system. Lenin, working with a vast, unwieldly and almost illiterate population in Russia, was able to bring about a coup d'état. His system could not have survived for more than fifteen years if the school system and the agencies of popular information, such as churches, newspapers, books, clubs and assemblages of the people, had not been either completely eliminated or brought under control. The Russian people today are powerless to know or think except

those things that the government would have them know and think. It is hardly necessary to enlarge upon the extraordinary peril which would be encountered by excessive central control of our schools. Probably no one who advocates federal aid would disagree with the opinions here expressed. They would probably insist that nothing of this kind is contemplated.

The history of our country is a plain revelation of gradual usurpation of powers by the federal government. There is hardly an instance where the federal government has embarked upon the financial support, operation or regulation of matters pertaining to the states or individuals where there has been retrenchment. The regulation of alcoholic liquors is a notable exception. Jefferson said the cure of democracy is more democracy. Whenever we have attempted to cure by federal intervention, usually the result has been more federal intervention. There is every expectation that once Uncle Sam's camel gets his nose into the educational tent, he will some day come inside.

A sure concomitant of federal support is the destruction of local support. It has been stated that tax money expended close to the source is expended more carefully because there is more local interest. People are more careful of their own money than somebody else's. The people develop more interest and initiative in regard to enterprises in which they put their money. If manna is to fall out of the federal heavens for the benefit of the schools, localities will inevitably cut off necessary financial support. Interest and enthusiasm, which in many places have been all too little, will diminish in a corresponding degree.

It is accepted that state support is necessary to have efficient schools which provide anything like equal opportunity for children in different localities. And yet, state aid is sometimes attended by a certain amount of loss of local interest and support. In 1931, the legislature of Florida wisely increased the state appropriation for public schools. Unfortunately, funds were never made available to carry out fully this legislation. This deplorable situation was further enhanced by the fact that many county boards and district boards cut down the financial support that they had been giving the schools because of the increased appropriation by the state.

When all the state funds failed to appear, the schools suffered a double disappointment. As surely as the night follows the day, increased responsibility by the federal government for the financial support of schools will be attended by decreasing support in certain states and localities. Even though the financial losses are small, popular interest which has been built up slowly and tediously will disappear quickly. Where a man's treasure is there is his heart also.

I have shown that federal aid to the schools must be attended by federal control, under present conditions, if we are to avoid general waste and misuse of these funds. I have also pointed out that federal control will tend to become greater and that centralized operation of the schools is a menace to our institutions and ideals. Finally, let it be observed that there is no necessity for federal aid under normal

conditions whatever we may do in times of emergency like the present. All the states are able to maintain a uniform efficient system of schools on all levels from the kindergarten through the university without severely taxing their resources. A bulletin published by the National Education Association, which goes into the question of the income, wealth and ability of the different states to support schools shows that no state is unable to finance its own school system.

This bulletin was based on information collected by the U. S. Office of Education, the National Industrial Conference Board, the National Bureau of Economic Research, and other reliable agencies just previous to the onset of the depression and the information assembled reveals the fact that in 1926 no state was expending more than 4½ per cent of its income on support for its schools, while many were spending less than 2 per cent in the states where it was highest and, in some states, it was less than 1 per cent. The same bulletin shows that the expenditure for schools in the various states is a mere fraction of the amounts expended for various other things of much less importance.

A similar bulletin, published in 1932, on facts of school costs presents the same data for the year 1930, after the depression had begun to make itself felt. There is some increase in the percentage of school costs in relation to the income of the states, but this is not sufficient substantially to alter the situation. In 1930, the highest percentage of school costs in any state was approximately 6 per cent of the state's income. This varied down to a minimum of approximately 2 per cent in the lowest state. Neither is there any significant difference in the percentage of value of school property in relation to all other property within the states. This item varied in 1930 from something over 3 per cent in the highest to less than 2 per cent.

In this connection it should be noted that in 1930 there were 128,840 fewer children under five years of age in the United States than there were in 1920. We have passed the peak of population in the United States. Social and economic pressure, resulting in birth control, has halted the population increase in a way similar to the situation which has long existed in France and some other countries. This definitely means that the burden of supporting schools will be relatively less in the future than it has been in the past.

It is evident that there is no necessity for federal financial assistance to the schools under normal conditions as no state, even in prosperous times, has ever expended more than a trifling proportion of its resources on its schools.

FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an article by George Johnson in the National University Extension Association's Debate Handbook for 1934-35, pages 111-131.)

By reason of the fact that control of education in the United States has been decentralized, there has not been a uniform progress in

schools throughout the country. Differences of climate, of natural resources, of wealth and of community character are responsible for the fact that children in some localities enjoy a wealth of educational opportunity whilst in others it is difficult for them to acquire more than the mere rudiments of learning. We have long been aware of this condition and some are convinced that it can be corrected to a large extent, at least, by using our taxing power on the federal level to supplement the resources of those localities which seem destined to have difficulties in supporting an adequate school system.

That the mere granting of federal funds will equalize educational opportunity throughout the United States is an assumption that needs proof. To begin with, no single factor is responsible for the educational inequalities at present existing. Whilst it is true that in some places there is a very obvious lack of adequate wealth, in other places the financial resources would be quite sufficient were they properly utilized. Most states at the present time require a reform in their taxation systems. In many of them the principle of local control has been abused and over-emphasized, with the result that the units for school administration are too small and waste results from lack of consolidation and coordination. Frequently state and local school administrators have not been people of vision and courage. Had they been so, the conditions at the present moment adversely affecting their schools would not have developed. To pour federal money into bad local situations will cure no fundamental evil, but on the contrary will only serve to perpetuate the status quo. That is to say, unless the Congress appropriates the money in such a way as to give the federal government power to withhold aid from those states and localities which fail to order their educational affairs according to federal standards. This, of course, would mean federal control of education.

There are very few school men in the United States who favor federal control of education. The conviction of the majority of American educators is well expressed by the National Advisory Committee on Education:

"A system of decentralized school management is best adapted to a democratic nation of wide geographical expanse and varied economic, social and other human conditions. The political domination of education by a remote central government, managed by administrative officers far removed from local conditions and sympathies, has always led to the evils of bureaucratic unresponsiveness to local and changing needs, to bureaucratic standardization, red tape, and delay, and to official insensitiveness to the criticism of far-distant parents to be brought under a far-removed civil administration which tends towards relative inflexibility."

Can federal aid be given to education in the United States without incurring the danger of federal control? Many think it can be. They would devise a formula whereby the funds would be distributed on what they call an objective basis, that is to say, on the basis of school population, or average daily attendance, or any other similar

measure. The federal agency distributing the funds would have no discretionary powers. The same basis would be used in every state in the union, regardless of whether the state were making intelligent use of its own resources or not and regardless of the type of school administration prevailing within the state. The only check the federal government would use would be the audits made by the treasury department to determine whether or not the monies granted had been spent for educational purposes. Neither the treasury audits nor any other would be used as a method of enforcing educational standards.

Now suppose the distribution of funds were made according to some objective method written down in the law and consequently no discretion were left to any federal agency. Would equalization result? Would not the greater share of the money go to those parts of the country that are most populous and endowed with the greatest wealth? States like New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, California, that in normal times encounter no great difficulty in supporting costly systems of education, would receive large grants of money from the federal government. As a result the educational standards of these localities would be endangered. To assume that they would continue to tax themselves to the same degree as in the past, when they had no federal aid, is absurd. They would divert some of the monies heretofore used for schools, but no longer necessary because of federal funds, to other purposes. The people at large, knowing that the federal government was giving some measure of support to the schools of the state, would not be very enthusiastic when it came to voting for the bond issues for the schools or imposing additional taxes upon themselves for the sake of education. The seed of dependence upon the federal government once sown would bear abundant fruit. The ideal of self-help would be dissipated bit by bit and education would soon come to be regarded as a federal and not a local responsibility. The ultimate result would be a universal lowering of standards.

Would it be good fiscal policy to distribute federal funds for education without leaving the federal government any discretionary power with regard to the use of these funds? That any Congress would appropriate large sums of money in such a loose fashion, for whatever purpose, is open to question. The possibilities for graft, for waste and for general misuse of funds are so apparent that it is hard to imagine either Congress or the President becoming so forgetful of political realities as to embark on such a course. The federal government is not in the habit of appropriating money without controlling in some measure the manner in which it is spent.

Even if there were a mood in the Congress to appropriate money for education without control, it is doubtful whether the people at large, once they understood the implications of the movement, would stand for it. After all, the money collected through taxes continues to belong, in a democratic government, to the taxpayer. Even if it does repose in the national treasury, it is still his money and those whom he has chosen to spend it must be governed by his desires as expressed

in the law and statute. As the burden of taxation becomes heavier, the American citizen is becoming more and more aware of the cost of government. He is thinking in terms of economy and is interested in ways and means of doing away with graft and corruption. He knows well that public servants, for political or other reasons, are inclined to be a bit irresponsible when it comes to the handling of public funds. He is wondering, for example, whether or not there has been waste in the field of education. He is asking himself whether he is getting what he pays for from the schools that he supports. As a consequence, he is not likely to view with equanimity the spectacle of millions of dollars gushing forth from the federal treasury all over the country with no provisions for channeling and directing the flood.

Would federal aid accompanied by federal control equalize educational opportunity? In other words, would it be possible to set up national standards that would be applicable to education in every part of the country and generally enforceable?

If educational standards for the country at large were promulgated from Washington, they would have to be minimum standards. The resources and the potentialities of the least favored localities would have to be borne in mind lest they be discouraged in the face of impossible requirements. There is no doubt that such minimum requirements would raise the educational standards of backward districts, but what would be their effect on districts not quite so backward or districts that under local control have been progressive?

It can be argued, of course, that federal aid will not necessarily affect the initiative of those localities that have been in the vanguard of educational progress—that with such assistance as the federal government may give they will be encouraged to do a good job better. However, the strong probability would exist, human nature being what it is, that states and localities would lose their sense of responsibility for the education of the children in the degree that the federal government assumes such responsibility. What would happen, in all likelihood, would be a general leveling down of educational standards throughout the nation.

Those whose impulse it is to turn to the federal government for aid of any and every kind seem to be under the impression that the money in the federal treasury is the gift of some benign and generous genie who responds to the rubbing of an Aladdin's Lamp. It is salutary to bear in mind that the one source of public funds in the United States, whether local, state or federal, is the taxpayer's pocketbook. Increased federal spending of necessity involves increased federal taxation. The apparent simplicity of the process whereby the federal government collects an annual income tax has convinced certain people that that time is at hand when the federal government will become in effect the great tax gatherer, collecting billions and billions of dollars each year, to be turned back to the states for local spending.

In the present emergency the federal government is spending money at a terrific rate and though there has been some expression of alarm

in certain quarters, in general the people of the United States have taken it for granted that this spending is justified by the emergency and have had faith in the administration's theory that government spending will eventually serve to prime the pump of industry and make it possible for private initiative to gradually assume its proper role. Everyone, however, admits that there is a limit somewhere and more and more people are becoming convinced that the limit has been reached.

The present tendency to extend the sphere of government, whether local, state or federal, into every conceivable phase of human existence is not in accord with the traditional principles of American liberty. It implies a change in the American concept of the purpose of government and unless checked must eventually lead to some form of collectivism. There are those among us today who are deliberately advocating the principle of taxation for social control. That is to say, they would in effect confiscate the wealth of individual citizens, taking away from the ordinary man an increasing share of his earnings, and use it to bring about social changes of one kind or other that they consider desirable. If this tendency prevails, it means that government will eventually take over and control, as does Facism in Italy or Communism in Russia, almost every department of our national life. The instrumentality used in effecting this revolution will be taxation.

Since the depression has hit the country and created an emergency in all departments of our national life, education included, many individuals who in the past were opposed to federal aid are now reluctantly, they confess, changing their position and coming to the conclusion that some degree of federal support will be necessary henceforth if American educational standards are to be maintained. They feel that even though the country does eventually get back on its feet economically, a permanent change will be required in our method of supporting public education and that the entire burden can no longer be left to the individual states. In support of their position they adduce figures and statistics without end, and by means of charts and graphs present a picture that at first glance seems most impressive.

However, careful analysis will reveal that the figures usually presented are open to large question. In order to paint the darkest kind of picture, various agencies in the last year have gathered statistics by anything but scientific methods. They do reveal that in many parts of the country states and localities are having great difficulty in maintaining an adequate school system, but they do not tell us very much about the real cause of the difficulties. Here are some of the questions that they do not answer: What has been the quality of educational leadership in these states prior to the depression? What steps have the states taken to put their own house in order? How many of the thousands of schools that have been closed are one-teacher schools enrolling less than twenty children? What reforms in the taxation system have been inaugurated that would promise better support for the schools? Has any attempt been made to enlarge the local

unit of administration so as to eliminate wasteful multiplication of units? These and other questions need to be answered before we can take it for granted that federal aid is necessary.

Any and every proposal to turn to the federal government for the support of American education in any measure or degree whatever should be regarded with the greatest suspicion by all who cherish the American ideal of liberty. It is a step in the direction of centralization of power in the federal government, and that means a step in the direction of some form of collectivist tyranny. The intense nationalism engendered in certain European nations as the result of highly centralized governments should be an object lesson to us whose ideal is freedom and democracy. An educational bureaucracy in Washington, with an army of office holders fattening on the taxpayer's money, would be very unhealthy for the country in general, and in the long run would have a very pernicious effect upon our public schools.

SOME ARGUMENTS AGAINST FEDERAL AID

(An article by Paul C. Stetson, reproduced by courtesy of the Nation's Schools from the September, 1934, issue, pages 25-26.)

The greatest administrative problem facing boards of education and administrators is that of financing education. The primary financial question confronting them today is not the details of the administration of the budget—the technique of that has been well established—but it is the financing of the budget.

We are committed to the principle of state support for public education. There can be no valid argument against the principle that public education is a state function and that, therefore, it is the obligation of the state, in part, to finance public schools. How the states will meet their obligation is a troublesome problem, but not one with which we are particularly concerned now. The question that is really causing great anxiety at the present time is the increasing emphasis that many persons are placing on the need and the desirability of federal aid.

Dean William Russell of Teachers College, in an address before the convention of the Department of Superintendence last February, set forth the following six-point program for federal aid: (1) $50,000,000 for immediate aid for the balance of this year to keep schools open, to be administered on any basis by a board or individual in Washington; (2) $100,000,000 for next year for the same purpose, to be administered by a board in Washington upon some objective basis; (3) a substantial sum (we thought of $300,000,000 or $400,000,000) upon the principle of equality and efficiency; (4) loans to the localities secured by frozen assets in banks and taxes anticipated; (5) grants for school buildings, and (6) $30,000,000 for college students.

Dean Russell's address deserves careful study. It is particularly interesting to note that he states, "In fact, if the principle of equality

and the principle of efficiency were to be applied to the nation as a whole, we should be safe in recommending to Congress that by far the best way to meet the immediate emergency in education would be to grant to each state a sum of $11 per pupil in average daily attendance for the school year 1932-33, with a slight additional amount for the less densely settled states. No board of strategy would be needed . . . Minimum programs would be cared for. Schools could be reopened . . . Local control would be preserved. It would be the best way to meet the emergency."

The third point outlined by Dean Russell is, of course, the important one in the financial program he advocates. Many persons feel that an appropriation of $300,000,000 or $400,000,000 by the federal government, to be distributed automatically to the various states, is only the first step toward the nationalization of the schools. Those who feel that the schools, if granted federal aid upon the basis proposed by the advisory commission, can escape the dangers of bureaucratic control are completely blind to the history of federal grants of money.

Federal aid for stricken areas where every attempt has been made to finance the schools is a project that should have the support of all, but federal aid granted to all states upon an automatic basis raises problems that seriously disturb many friends of the public schools.

In the first place, these persons feel that federal support, whether given upon an automatic basis or according to any other formula, means federal control. The advocates of the proposed plan deny this and hope to safeguard the schools from such control, but there is such a perfect illustration of federal control of education in the activities of the vocational education board that those of us who have dealt with that board are skeptical of the statement that control of the schools, in the event of large grants of money, will not be vested in the federal government. There is a fundamental law, not yet outmoded, that control goes to the source of the financial support.

An illustration of such control is found in the activities of the various relief employment commissions and boards set up by the federal government for the administration of relief in local areas.

It is doubtful whether it should be otherwise. The federal government certainly should not be expected to grant large sums of money annually for the support of the public schools and not ask for any accounting thereof. In fact, if the federal government should grant large sums of money for that or any other purpose, it would be failing in its duty if it did not assume a certain responsibility for the expenditure of that money.

A second reason for not favoring the third point of the six-point program outlined by the advisory commission is that, with a few exceptions, there is no question about the inherent ability of the states to support an adequate program of education. Indiana and Ohio are illustrations of two states in the same geographical territory that are having entirely different experiences in the financial support of their

schools. If Indiana, with half of the population and one-third of the wealth of Ohio, can support an adequate program of education, should not Ohio, one of the most prosperous and populous states in the union, be able to maintain an adequate system of public schools?

The difficulty in Ohio, as in most of the other states, is not lack of financial ability to support a program of education. Rather, it is lack of a plan through which to finance a program of education. Financial problems confronting the various states, cities and school boards, in the main, do not arise primarily from lack of financial resources; they come primarily from political interference, from outmoded forms of government, from antiquated machinery, and from a refusal on the part of the legislators and their leaders to face the issues squarely and frankly. Because of the failure of states to reorganize and modernize their taxation procedures, to replan the present county and state systems of government, and to force legislators to meet the issue on its merits instead of upon its political implications, certain of our wealthiest states have faced and still face other serious financial problems.

The cure is not to join the "on to Washington" movement but to force, through the creation of public sentiment and the formulation of definite plans, reforms within the states which will make possible an adequate program of decent government and the support of the schools. The price which states and localities will pay for temporary relief from the present emergency will be so great that the results will not justify paying that price. The price which states and localities would pay for that temporary relief would be to surrender, eventually, the control of the public school systems to the federal government.

Nationalization of schools would inevitably result and nationalization in a country as large as the United States would spell the death of progress. Political domination of public school systems is not uncommon, but the units are usually so small that when conditions become bad enough the people rise and wrest control of the schools from the dishonest politicians. Political domination of the schools in a state is possible, but here again the unit is small enough so that the will of the people would eventually make itself felt. But political domination of public school systems through federal government presents possibilities which have caused many persons to refuse to subscribe to the demand that this or the subsequent Congress take the first step toward nationalization. If the federal government should assume control of the public schools, one of the basic principles upon which the entire American system is founded would be endangered—local control of state and municipal governments.

Finally, many of us fear that advocating federal support for state or local school units will retard the progress that is being made toward state support of the public schools. Within the past three or four years state governments increasingly have become aware of their obligations for the financial support of school systems. Indiana is an excellent example of a state which, in 1933, undertook a large measure of the

financial support of its public schools. The result of that has been that no schools have been closed in Indiana and that this year, so far as is known, no school district has failed to meet its financial obligations. The prospect of large grants of money from the federal government would undoubtedly tend to make many state administrations less ready to formulate and carry out adequate plans for the financing of education.

The plight of Michigan and Ohio is explained, in part, by the activities of these minority groups who were successful in getting through constitutional amendments which seriously limit the abilities of many local governments in those states to finance properly any type of municipal government.

State support, in part, for the public schools and national aid to those areas which have completely exhausted their resources seem to be the indicated solution of the present troublesome financial problems rather than outright grants of federal money, on an automatic basis, to states or local school systems.

FEDERAL ORGANIZATION FOR EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an article by C. R. Mann in the Educational Review, volume 63, pages 102-109, February, 1922.)

Education is not explicitly mentioned in the constitution. It is difficult, therefore, to determine by legal processes exactly which functions of education belong to the federal government by constitution and which do not. It is equally difficult to settle the question conclusively by legal arguments based on constitutional definition of states' rights.

It is possible, however, to try to place ourselves in the position of the framers of the constitution and to attack the problem as they did. To do this we must first get a clear conception of the objective of this democratic government of ours, then proceed in the light of changed conditions to make an analysis of the functions that must be performed to achieve that objective, and then create the organization to do the job. If we do this as well as they did, the nation will prosper and grow stronger. But if we fail, or if we perpetuate organizations that have been added to the machinery of government by mistake or because of the enthusiasm of some individual or cult, the virility of the nation will decline. It is particularly important to make no mistake with regard to education just now, after the recent appalling exhibit of how a perfectly good nation like Germany can be ruined by following false ideals in the training of her youth.

From this point of view, the problem is not one of analyzing the phrases of the constitution to discover the legality of any proposed action. It is rather a problem of determining what action is necessary to induce a people temperamentally constructed as Americans are to direct their energies toward achieving the obvious intent and purpose of the constitution. Specifically applied to education, the problem may

be stated thus: What must the government do to create and maintain conditions under which the peculiar abilities of every citizen to contribute constructively to national strength and public welfare will be developed to the utmost?

All proposals that have been made on this subject agree that one of the prime functions of a federal education office is to study and investigate educational conditions and to make reliable reports thereon. The bureau of education is now doing this as efficiently as its limited funds will permit. Nearly everyone agrees that more liberal support should be given to this kind of work. This activity may then be accepted as an essential educational function of the national government.

A second important activity for which there is some precedent and much eager support is the granting of federal subsidies to the states to help support local schools. This activity raises fundamental questions of national policy on which there are at present wide differences of opinion. Is it a sound national policy to offer money to a state to induce it to better its educational system? Does this method of securing action tend to develop local initiative, self-dependence, responsibility, moral stamina, and all those other fine traits of character that are fundamental to an upstanding manhood? Or do such methods pauperize the states and encourage them to lean on Uncle Sam for support, thereby reducing instead of increasing their joy in productive work. Are there not other effective ways of inciting men to action than that of offering them money?

In the case of individuals the matter is well understood. Everyone knows that true charity consists in teaching a man how to win his own way. Training men to be self-supporting is the original purpose and ultimate justification of public support of schools. But in the cases of large groups like states, the principle is more impersonal and less obvious. Hence ready money is offered to attract attention and secure immediate results, without due consideration of the inevitable consequences.

Mississippi has been held up by the proponents of federal subsidies for education as a state which has so little taxable wealth that it cannot itself raise enough money for the proper support of schools. Therefore—so the argument runs—it is necessary to call in the federal government to collect taxes from New York and distribute subsidies in Mississippi to help the inhabitants there in establishing their school system.

It happens that in Mississippi in 1910 a man with creative imagination visited the state and saw what was needed to create better schools. Having some private funds at his disposal, he employed another man with a creative idea to spend his time among the people of Mississippi showing them how they could improve their conditions by organizing corn clubs and canning clubs and consolidated schools. The work prospered. The legislature passed the necessary statutes authorizing the establishment of consolidated schools. These schools have now grown rapidly until there are 525 of them, each replacing from one to seven or eight small one-room schools.

The course of study in consolidated schools is not the conventional course given in most public schools. It is aimed at teaching the children to be productive citizens. When the corn clubs demonstrated that it is possible to raise 130 bushels of corn to an acre, and the schools showed how to prepare the land for other crops than cotton, the adults of the district became interested and sought further information. The result has been that the productivity of the communities about the consolidated schools has increased, their ready money has multiplied, and their bank credit has become more stable. They have taxed themselves heavily to support these schools, and the schools have become the center of social and uplift work for their respective communities.

All of this work in Mississippi was done by the people themselves, without federal subsidies, because of the skilful missionary work of one man with a dynamic idea. When in 1917 the Smith-Hughes law was passed and federal subsidies were available, these contributed somewhat to the further development of the schools; but at present only 30 of the 525 consolidated schools are receiving aid from the federal grant.

This experience of Mississippi indicates that even in communities that seem to have low taxable wealth, there is latent energy which when aroused enables them to achieve great results. It indicates that when a school delivers goods the people want, the people are ready to pay the price. The financial difficulties of schools at the present time are not due to lack of money among the people. At present the nation spends about $1,000,000,000 on its public schools. It spends $10,000,000,000 or more on cosmetics, chewing gum, soda water, ice cream, joy rides, races, tobacco, and other luxuries and frivolities. Clearly the people want chewing gum, cosmetics, and the rest ten times as badly as they want the kind of schooling which is offered them on the open market. When, however, they have the opportunity to buy an education which they appreciate, they have no real difficulty in finding the necessary funds.

From the facts and figures such as these, it seems clear that federal subsidies for education tend to prolong the life of a type of schooling which the people do not pay for. Far greater results in the way of educational progress may be obtained by supplying reliable information and dynamic ideas, and by demonstrating how those ideas may be made to work in practice. When a farming community has seen an acre bear 130 bushels of corn instead of 30, it is ready to seek further enlightenment as to how this is done and to pay the price of finding out.

It is also possible to achieve great results with the people of this country by inciting competition among them over the achievement of a great idea. During the war the operation of the draft was a magnificent example of how our people will give time and energy, without pay, to contribute to a great cause and compete with one another, each doing his full share. You say that was war. It is true that winning the war was a peculiarly dynamic idea; but self-support and personal development are profound human instincts, capable of stirring men to great activity. If a federal education office would publish annually reliable information concerning the conditions of illiteracy, the conditions of public

health and other vital factors affecting education, the states would soon be competing with one another to make the best record. They would do this, too, without federal subsidies.

FEDERAL AID AGAIN

(Editorial, reproduced by courtesy of the Nation's Schools, from the September, 1934, issue, pages 9-11.)

It is now possible to review through published evidence and cloak-room whisperings the results secured by the National Education Association lobby for federal aid. The John J. Douglass bill calling for $75,000,000 direct aid to all types of schools was the principal venture of the educational lobby. It included a section providing for diversion of public funds to nonpublic institutions. After being approved by the education committee, it was quietly killed because southern members would not agree to the abrogation of the principle of undivided school support. The Logan bill in the senate, practically a duplicate of the Douglass bill, was also defeated. The next attempt was to secure the same amount of money by earmarking the FERA appropriation. Since earmarking funds was against administrative policy, this attempt also failed.

The total result obtained was legal authorization to lend through PWA to school districts up to $75,000,000 upon adequate security to pay back salaries to teachers. By making local banks joint losers on any defaults these loans will only be made to school districts in good financial condition. Actually, the worst need is in districts whose underlying security hardly forms a good loan base. In addition, there is an inferred promise from Administrator Harry Hopkins, later denied, that FERA funds up to $48,000,000 would be used in emergencies to keep the schools open.

The outcome was obvious to those familiar with conditions at Washington even before the lobby started its work. The administration believes that education is a state function and also feels that social safety lies in decentralized school systems. Hence any successful efforts by a professional lobby would mean that the lobby was stronger than the administration. In the second place, the federal administration has steadfastly refused to consider anything but emergency aid to schools in order to avoid establishing a precedent.

The problems of reconstruction in education must be solved by the states. This fact was obvious several years ago and the entire program would probably be further toward realization if less attention had been paid to national lobbying as a means of relief and support. The last six months should have convinced even the secretariat of the National Education Association of the wisdom of lending its major support to the development of state programs. Forty-four legislatures meet in 1935. All effort should be directed to secure essential consideration of problems within the legal pattern of the state. If the ballyhoo for national support is eliminated the teaching profession may get

away from the feeling that distant fields are greener and easier to reach, devoting instead its complete attention to the difficult task of creating a dynamic public opinion behind reconstruction legislation.

There is no need of minimizing the problem. It is most difficult. Under our plan of reorganization and in terms of our tradition it is the only way.

There are several fields of problems requiring immediate solution in the reconstruction plan. It is first essential that the goals of education in our democratic pattern be restated and widely promulgated. Upon these goals it is possible to build a working program of essential institutional service. The first fundamental legislative problem to be considered by most states is basic reorganization of administrative units. So long as the present inadequate district system exists it will be impossible to provide an intelligent or economical program of finance. It seems apparent that the smallest practical administrative unit is the county and possibly, in numerous instances, a much larger territorial unit. Until rational equalization is secured through elimination of existing extravagant small local units, it is difficult to determine to what extent state aid is needed. If permanent support is given before reorganization, then current inadequacies will become permanent and trouble is being laid up for the next depression. Territorial reorganization of administrative units is an absolute primary fundamental.

Reorganization of state tax systems in order to secure better balance, segregation of sources and taxation of all wealth is now in the process of development. Even without support from the profession, these changes will probably occur within a relatively short time since they are essential for other agencies of civil government as well. Intelligent understanding of this problem and support of the program by the profession undoubtedly will assist materially in speeding up the process of reconstruction.

The third problem, that of supplying adequate and sufficient personnel, is one that must be solved by the profession itself. So long as the present maladjustment between supply and demand continues no force can maintain teachers' salaries. So long as poorly trained but legally qualified teachers are being certificated without reference to need, they will continue to crowd out the better trained teachers. A number of states have already made plans for adjustments and are controlling their teacher production programs to demand. Others have as yet done nothing about it. Its solution depends on the attitude the profession in the field takes and the pressure it brings upon teacher training centers.

There will be depressions in the future. During depressions it is quite obvious that social income shrinks and that monies raised by taxes must also shrink. Unless these facts are realized and provision is made to secure a balanced income, education will suffer almost as badly in future depressions as at present. The safest means of providing a balanced income is to eliminate all borrowing for capital enlargement and to con-

serve all credit for short term loans during periods of reduced income. Adoption of this policy will require the development of a long time instead of merely an annual budget.

It is apparent that reorganization into larger administrative units will require much new building. If the new plans include attendance districts developed around sociologic centers and better use of existing city district plants, the new capital investment need not be so large as has been frequently assumed. Local districts cannot carry the load out of current income. Essential finance for capital construction finance must be provided by either the state or the federal government, or by both agencies.

Federal aid for capital improvement is desirable as well as feasible. Federal aid for school sites, buildings and equipment is in line with a sound public works program. Aid so given, like that for roads, eliminates any possible centralized control after the building is completed. The dangers of physical standardization and plan crystalization through bureaucratic control should be considered. The annual need after 1940 for physical construction is $500,000,000. It seems probable that the federal administration will lend sympathetic ear to such a program after essential reorganization has been made and actual need determined. It is the only safe and desirable form of federal aid.

Another large problem is that of social interpretation. Until the profession considers the institutional relationship to the public on a larger plane than that of mere publicity, terminal results are dubious. One of the first needs in this field is for reorganization of the teaching profession into a guild with its major strength lying within each state. Another need is for a change in conception on the part of teacher training institutions of the teacher's function in a democratic social pattern.

ARGUMENTS OPPOSING FEDERAL AID

(Excerpts from the report of the National Advisory Committee on Education, pages 12-25, Washington, D. C., October, 1931.)

Our American experience with educational management on all three governmental levels—local, state, and federal—must be appraised in terms of its total effects, social and political as well as educational. It may well be that the apparent immediate educational efficiencies which are the aim of federal management of education, may be completely counterbalanced by other ultimate losses in social and political functioning. It is the conviction of this committee that harm results when intimacy between schools and their patrons and neighbors is disturbed by remote control of a distant authority. Weakened personnel and local responsibility for so important a social function as public education may ultimately sap the foundations of popular interest and of support which historically have been among the major factors in the development by the United States of the most democratic system of education in the world.

Let it always be remembered that in civilization and government we are a democracy. We accept the democratic aspiration as a dominating fact in American life. We have chosen to locate sovereignty with the whole people operating coöperatively in their delegations of power to governments. Ours is a free society and governments are designed to be its agents, not its masters.

The apparent danger that lurks in all of our more recent attempts to inject the federal government into education in the local communities is that it has not always nor even generally manifested that tender regard for local modes of management which has characterized state and county coöperations with local schools. Federal agencies frequently tend to set up modes of management highly centralist in spirit and effect, wherever they have tried to work in coöperation with state-wide agencies and local boards. Their right to approve and reject plans submitted by the states, involving details of both administration and instruction, is not in harmony with the indigenous American spirit of local and decentralized management which has always yielded certain and good results given adequate time. It is the spirit of local self-government native to the American people which dominates most of our educational affairs in the forty-eight states. The centralist attitude, already apparent where the federal government touches education in the states, is felt to be contradictory to our normal ways of conducting educational affairs, and hence arouses popular distrust.

There are those who hold that national welfare demands education different from and apart from that which expresses the wishes of a combined consciousness of all the American people working through their local school boards. That argument does not have adequate warrant in fact. There is no type of education subsidized and managed by the federal government that did not originate in the local communities and the states, and that did not, by the normal processes of local innovation and social imitation, spread over sufficiently wide areas to demonstrate that it was a matter of general social, economic and human importance in our national life before the federal government undertook to promote it. The service which the federal government has rendered through its system of subventions and the control incident to the same has greatly accelerated the spread of an educational movement already under way, and standardized its purposes and processes, sometimes with the danger of restricting wide experimentation before full experimental variation has made wise choice possible.

This development of administrative power by the federal government in highly specialized fields of education presents a threat that cannot longer be ignored. Unless there is an early reversal of policy, further federal participation in special phases of education within the states will involve us in a form of incoordinated centralization with evils far greater than those which characterize some of the European

governments. The danger may seem remote but it calls for our scrutiny now.

The increasing number of new proposals for federal participation in special phases of education, each to be in charge of a specialist group operating through a separate federal office, suggests that the danger is not as remote as we may think.

There are bolder centralists, both lay and professional, who argue that economic change and need are so far outstripping the capacity of the people to educate and adjust themselves to the most rapidly changing world we have ever known, that educational reconstruction cannot longer be permitted to wait upon the combined or fused public opinion of local communities in forty-eight states. Education, in its relation to economic change, they say, has become a highly technical matter, difficult for the people as a whole to comprehend. Policy needs to be formulated by a national organization of technically competent persons and their arguments brought to bear upon some central body of political representatives qualified to legislate promptly for the nation as a whole. That body is the federal Congress.

It is possible that more rapid action may be thus obtained and that the special type of education concerned may be more rapidly spread throughout the country with the aid of federal subventions and forced local matching of funds. It is possible that standards can be more quickly raised, in the large communities at least, by federally controlled state plans. But the price of such immediate gains is the stifling of much local experimentation, which is essential to the virility and continuing growth of every type of education. The inevitable result of centralized interference is the weakening of that intimate popular responsibility for education which has made American education unique because of its final responsiveness to the sensed needs of a democratic people with all of their differing aspirations and local conditions.

A nation built upon a theory of popular sovereignty, personal responsibility, and capacity for self-government can ill afford, for the sake of quick results, to weaken itself where it has long been virile. And childhood is, in the United States, the deepest personal concern of the American parent. If, as citizen, he loses his sense of personal and local responsibility for the education of his own and his neighbor's children, there is little hope that he will feel a keen sense of responsibility for less personal civic services, or that his children will develop that capacity for self-government which is the essential foundation of popular sovereignty.

DANGERS OF FEDERALIZED EDUCATION

(Excerpts from an article by James H. Ryan in Current History, volume 20, pages 926-931, September, 1924.)

Those who believe in federalization for its own sake will hardly be convinced of the perils to education from a recital of the hazards involved in government control of the schools. There exists, however,

a strong public opinion, and it is growing stronger every day, which views the continued usurpations by the federal government of the rights and duties of the individual states as a direct menace to the perpetuation of that correct balance which must exist between the functions of each if the constitutional form of government under which we live is to be preserved in its entirety and pristine vigor. Nor is the fear of federal aggression confined to those who might be expected to discover traces of it everywhere—the governors and legislatures of the several states. The late President Harding, in what was considered his most forcible speech, delivered at the Plymouth Centenary, said: "The one outstanding danger of today is the tendency to turn to Washington for the things which are the tasks or the duties of the forty-eight commonwealths which constitute the state." President Coolidge has taken the same position, both in his first message to Congress and in recent speeches. The constitutional history of the United States has been marked by the gradual but definite extension of the powers of the central government. This development has reached such a pass that well-grounded fears are expressed on all sides for the continuance of anything like an effective system of states' rights. Congress has appealed again and again to the general welfare and commerce clauses of the constitution to justify a whole series of enactments by which it has obtained more and more control over the functions of the states, especially in the social and economic fields. As a result of these encroachments the influence of Congress is already very large, if not predominant, in the regulation of public morals, the promotion of public health, the control of transportation, business corporations, and even labor. It has already branched out into the field of public education, since the Smith-Lever and Smith-Hughes acts bestow upon the federal government a directive influence on the course of agricultural and vocational education throughout the nation.

Historically, education has always been a matter for local control and encouragement. The natural and inevitable results of national "encouragement" of education would be national standards for the schools, national courses of study, national educational methods—in a word, national conformity, which would finally paralyze local initiative and impose upon every community a set of rigid standards wholly unadaptable to local needs and conditions.

What education needs in the United States is not federal control but better state control. The fact that some states have been negligent in providing adequately for their schools is no reason for asking the central government to take over these educational systems. The backward states may be stimulated to greater effort by federal grants, but one may well question whether in the last analysis it would not be better for these states to work out their own problems rather than depend upon the central government, which, if it appropriates money, must demand in return that the states accept the system of more or less inflexible educational standards which the federal organization will set up. Many of the European countries subsidize education, it

is true, but they also control education. France and Prussia are concrete examples of what a state-subsidized and state-controlled system of schools leads to.

The broad principles underlying all the efforts of the nationalist school may be summed up in the thesis that the authority of the state over the child is superior to that of the parent. In this conception the state is viewed as possessing rights which no individual may question, and to the pursuit of which every individual right must be subordinated. Politically, such a philosophy, when carried to the logical extreme, spells autocracy pure and unalloyed. In the realm of education it means the national school, a nationalized curriculum, and nationalized teachers. The parent's rights are no longer regarded as sacred, since, in the supposed interests of this higher person, the state, every father is called upon to waive his rights to direct the training of his own child. The nationalized school thus connotes the nationalized child; the individual's good is swallowed up in the supposed good of the state, to the attainment of which the state must bend every energy, social, economic, educational and religious. The theory of the state as an organism is Hegel's. Bismarck made it a concrete political reality. How any American statesman, much less an educator, with the history of two centuries of educational freedom constantly before his eyes, can behold national security and well-being in such an autocratic ideal may well be an easy problem for the psychologist to solve. For the ordinary man in the street, imbued as he is with the principles of democracy and of personal freedom, the advocacy of Prussianism in education can only be regarded as a strange aberration of the educator's mind, or as deliberate treason to our national ideals.

EDUCATION AND GOVERNMENT

(Excerpts from an article by Alfred E. Smith, reproduced by courtesy of the Nation's Schools, from the September, 1934, issue, pages 12-16.)

As a result of its system of taxation and its method of equalizing educational opportunity through a state plan of financing schools, New York's educational system has withstood the economic storm better than most states. No schools have been closed. The minimum school year of 190 days has been maintained. The state salary schedules are intact. With minor exceptions, no needed school service has been abandoned. New York has avoided those stupid attempts of society to make little children pay for adult folly and mismanagement. As the economic tide turns, New York is ready to move forward on a sound, progressive educational program.

Other states, I am told, have not fared so well. The reasons are not hard to find.

The National Survey of School Finance disclosed that of the 48 states, 42 draw from 75 per cent to more than 99 per cent of their revenue for the support of schools from the general property taxes.

Thirty-three of the states draw less than 25 per cent of their school revenue from the state; and 14 of them less than 10 per cent.

There is a close parallel between those states that place the burden of the support of schools on the general property tax and those that delegate or mandate the responsibility for the support of schools to the local districts. The general property tax is the only tax of any consequence available to the local district. When the taxable wealth of the district is low the income for education must suffer; when taxes are uncollectible, schools must close.

On the other hand, it has been pointed out, the state can tax income and forms of wealth beyond the reach of local taxing districts. Particularly, can the state tax wealth where it is and distribute the income from such tax on an equitable basis for the education of all the children of the state regardless of their environment or of the taxable wealth of the district in which they reside.

There is today urgent demand for the federal support of education. I am not opposed to a fair and efficiently administered emergency program of federal support for public schools, but it behooves all friends of public education to give careful thought to the question of long term federal aid.

The forefathers, strong in their support of education, left the responsibility of developing systems of schools to the several states. It is axiomatic in American government that control follows support. Men may cry federal aid without federal control, but so declaring does not determine the outcome. In Russia, in Italy, in Germany, we have in our own day seen the school system of a people diverted to the purposes of a single political party. Whoever pays the fiddler calls the tune.

The problems of public education cannot be solved in these states until tax systems have been revised to relieve general property, especially agriculture, and to tap those sources of revenue represented by income and segregation of wealth. They cannot be solved until the state—each state—has found an equitable means of taking the state's income where it is and distributing such income through equitable means wherever children are. State tax systems must be overhauled. The state itself must guarantee a reasonable standard educational opportunity to every child within its borders. Until the several states take these two related steps, there is little hope for public education through federal subsidy.

One other issue ought also to be placed in the records. The administrative machinery of our public school systems is antiquated, ineffective, expensive, unsuited to the needs of our day and generation. Around every city and village of consequence, urban population has overflowed into the country. Improvements in transportation and communication have forever eliminated the need for a schoolhouse within walking distance of every child. The assumption that laymen can perform the administrative duties necessary to the operation of a modern educational program is a travesty. The time has come to overhaul the educational machinery of our state school systems.

To formulate an educational program in terms of the government we want, to reorganize the administration of public education, to revise our state systems of taxation, to guarantee a reasonable equalization of educational opportunity to every child in every nook and corner of this land—these are problems to test the faith and courage of all citizens. First and foremost, they are problems for the several states. In every state, let the citizens assemble, let them formulate their programs. Let them keep these programs before their legislative bodies until favorable action has been taken. Let no governor, legislator or citizen assume that he has served his day and generation, that he has contributed to the progress of government until he has helped his state reach a fair solution of the problems.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN EDUCATION

(Address delivered by R. L. Wilbur before the annual meeting of the American Council on Education, May 3, 1929, as carried in School and Society, volume 29, pages 845-846, June 22, 1929.)

I have often wished that I might have had the pleasure of sitting in at the discussions when the basic principles underlying the organization of the United States of America were being thought out loud by men like Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Franklin. It seems to me that the wisest and shrewdest thing that was done was to encourage universal public education as the basis upon which citizenship should rest. The school house and the church have been the earliest community enterprises throughout the history of our gradual conquest of a great continent. They came just as soon as sustenance and defense had been mastered. In themselves, they were more significant because they brought local self-government and self-control into play.

There has been a unique distribution of the taxing power so that the majority of the expenditures for taxation have been raised and spent in the local districts and only a modest percentage outside of those for war and its after effects has come from the central government in Washington. This, together with the organization of the state governments, has permitted of a wide range of development in the public schools. Fortunately, too, there were no national universities and the state universities followed a prolonged period of privately operated and later privately endowed institutions of higher learning. When the state universities appeared they were under the constant stimulation of private and independent institutions of equal rank. This kept the hand of centralized government largely off of the school teacher and the schoolroom. Of course, there have been marked inadequacies in districts without a proper sense of self-government, without natural organizing power and without financial strength. Some of those who have looked over our educational system have noticed only these dark spots and have thought that a national mechanism should be devised that would be nation-wide in scope and would bring these weaker or dark spots at least

up to the average level of the country. Correction of abuses is a poor method of developing proper administration. It seems to me that there is a distinct menace in the centralization in the national government of any large educational scheme with extensive financial resources available. Abormal power to mold and standardize and crystalize education, which would go with the dollars, would be more damaging to local government, local aspiration and self-respect and to state government and state self-respect, than any assistance that might come from the funds.

We cannot rise higher than our source. That source in government with us is local. The family and the local community must be the places where citizenship is built and where the fiber of the nation is strengthened and its forces recruited. Too much help from afar is harmful to the initiative and self-reliance requisite for character in a community.

The place of the national government is not that of supplying funds in large amounts for carrying on the administrative functions of education in the communities, but to develop methods, ideals and procedures, and to present them, to be taken on their merits. The national government, too, can give widespread information on procedures, can report on what is actually going on in different parts of the country and in the world and can unify to some extent the objects of those in the field of education in so far as unification is desirable. There is a distinct place for this sort of thing in the administrative side of the national government, but it should not be recognized as an administrative position with large funds at its disposal. A department of education similar to the other departments of the government is not required. An adequate position for education within a department and with sufficient financial support for its research, survey and other work, is all that is needed.

Great gains are possible in our whole educational scheme through national leadership provided in this way. Education is preparation for the future, and there must be constant change to keep in step with the advances made. Our conceptions regarding the mental make-up of children are shifting and the requirements of life are changing with a civilization which is being revamped by the practical applications of science and invention. The object of those of us who seek the greatest possible advantages for all from education can, it seems to me, be accomplished without disturbing the initiative and responsibility of local and state units of government.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Package libraries on the subject of federal aid to education may be obtained from the Library Extension Department of the University of North Carolina. These package libraries will be sold at 30 cents each. They will be ready for distribution on January 1, 1935. Address the Library Extension Department, Chapel Hill, N. C. Payment should accompany the order.

The H. W. Wilson Company has published a 213-page number of the Reference Shelf, volume 9, No. 3, on the subject, "Federal Aid to Education." J. E. Johnsen, compiler. Price, 90 cents. Address the H. W. Wilson Company, 958 University Avenue, New York, N. Y.

The H. W. Wilson Company has also published a 121-page number of the Reference Shelf, volume 9, No. 8, on the subject, "Federal Aid for the Equalization of Educational Opportunity." Hellen M. Muller, compiler. Price, 90 cents. Address the H. W. Wilson Company, 958 University Avenue, New York, N. Y.

The August 20, 1934 number of Editorial Research Reports, prepared by Joel I. Seidman, is devoted to the topic, "Federal Aid to Education." Price, 75 cents. Address Editorial Research Reports, 1503 Twenty-first Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Bower Aly has published the National University Extension Association's Debate Handbook, volume 1, entitled "Equalizing Educational Opportunity by Means of Federal Aid to Education," September, 1934. This handbook contains an annotated bibliography, a critical analysis of the national debate topic, articles prepared especially for the volume, and selected reprints from current sources. The handbook is 220 pages in length. Price, 75 cents. Address Bower Aly, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

Bower Aly has also published the National University Extension Association's Debate Handbook, volume 2, supplement, September, 1934, entitled "Equalizing Educational Opportunity by Means of Federal Aid to Education." This supplement contains seven sections of 32 pages each, dealing with phases of the question of federal aid for equalizing educational opportunity. Reprints from current sources are carried, together with materials designed to furnish background for a study of the proposition. The supplement contains 224 pages. Price, 75 cents. Address Bower Aly, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

The University of Oklahoma Press has for sale copies of the debate over the radio on the national debate topic, which was held on November 14, 1934. The speakers who participated on the debate program were: on the affirmative, George McCarty and Karl E. Mundt; and on the negative, Roy C. Brown and H. L. Ewbank. The price is 15 cents for one copy or 25 cents for two copies. Address the University of Oklahoma Press, Norman, Oklahoma.

Noble and Noble have published "Federal Aid for Education," a 276-page debater's help book, edited by E. C. Buehler. Price, 85 cents. Address Noble and Noble, Publishers, Inc., 76 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.

The National Research Bureau has issued a publication, entitled "Current Conflicting Views on Federal Grants for Elementary and Secondary Education." Price, $2.12. Address the National Research Bureau, 210 East Erie Street, Chicago, Ill.

The publication, "School Activities," published by School Activities Publishing Company, Topeka, Kansas, has announced a series of articles on the national debate topic as follows: September (1934), the affirmative case; October, the negative case; November, the affirmative rebuttal; December, the negative rebuttal.

The report of the National Advisory Committee on Education, published in 1931 and entitled "Federal Relations to Education," contains material of value in the study of the debate topic. It is suggested that the principal or debate coach make inquiry concerning copies of this report to the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

The February, 1934, number of the Congressional Digest is devoted to the topic, "The Crisis in America's School System." Price, 50 cents. Address the Congressional Digest, 2131 LeRoy Place, Washington, D. C.

The August-September number of the Congressional Digest is devoted to the subject, "Federal Monies for Public Schools." Price, 50 cents. Address the Congressional Digest, 2131 LeRoy Place, Washington, D. C.

The Library of Congress has published a list of references on the debate subject. For this bibliography, the principal or debate coach should write the Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.

The Office of Education will probably be able to furnish some material or a list of references on the debate subject. For this service, the principal or debate coach should write the Office of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

The National Education Association will probably be able to furnish some material and a list of references on the debate subject. For this service, the principal or debate coach should write the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

The Chamber of Commerce of the United States published on December 26, 1922, its referendum number 40, which contains summaries of majority and minority reports of its committee on education. For this material, write the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, D. C.

The North Carolina senators and congressmen may be able to furnish from congressional sources some material dealing with the debate subject.

The principal or debate coach might inquire of the American Council on Education for a list of the publications of this organization, dealing with the general subject of federal aid to education. Address the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

American School Board Journal, volume 83, page 53, November, 1931. "The National Survey of School Finance." P. R. Mort.

American School Board Journal, volume 88, pages 23-24, May, 1934. "Who Will Pay the Federal Aid." J. H. Goldthorpe.

American School Board Journal, volume 88, pages 14-15, June, 1934. "What America Can Learn From Three European Nations in Financing Schools." F. H. Swift.

Annals of the American Academy, volume 129, pages 102-105, January, 1927. "Federal Subsidies for Education." A. F. MacDonald.

Catholic Educational Review, volume 28, pages 583-586, December, 1930. "The Fate of Some Federal Land Grants and of the U. S. Surplus Revenue Loan." C. N. Lischka.

Catholic Educational Review, volume 30, pages 65-76, February, 1932. "The Report of the National Advisory Committee on Education." George Johnson.

Charlotte Observer for February 21, 1934. Editorial, "National Crisis in Education."

Charlotte Observer for August 22, 1934. Editorial, "Educational Impairments."

Current History, volume 20, pages 926-931, September, 1934. "Dangers of Federalized Education." J. H. Ryan.

Educational Record, volume 3, pages 114-125, January-December, 1922. "Federal Policies in Education." Alexander Inglis.

Educational Record, volume 11, pages 60-100, April, 1930. "Federal Relations to Education."

Educational Record, volume 11, pages 196-207, July, 1930. "Antecedents of the Federal Acts Concerning Education." E. H. Reisner.

Educational Record, volume 14, pages 409-414, July, 1933. "National Survey of School Finance." P. R. Mort.

Editorial Research Reports, volume 1, No. 1, 1931. "Federal Subsidies to the States."

Educational Review, volume 63, pages 102-109, February, 1922. "Federal Organization for Education." C. R. Mann.

Elementary School Journal, volume 31, pages 94-95, October, 1930. "Federal Subsidies for Education."

Elementary School Journal, volume 34, pages 81-83, October, 1933. "The Report of the National Conference on the Financing of Education."

Elementary School Journal, volume 34, pages 645-648, May, 1934. Editorial, "Two Views With Respect to Methods of Granting Federal Aid to Education."

Forum and Century, volume 89, pages 365-369, June, 1933. "The School Crisis and What Can be Done About It." James Metzenbaum.

Harper's Magazine, volume 167, pages 705-714, November, 1933. "Deflating the Schools." A. D. Carlson.

High School Journal, volume 17, pages 43-45, February, 1934. Editorial, "Federal Aid for Education."

Journal of Educational Research, volume 13, pages 90-103, February, 1926. "Equalization of Educational Opportunity." P. R. Mort.

Journal of Educational Research, volume 16, pages 88-97, September, 1927. "The Ability and Effort of the States to Support Education." J. K. Norton.

Journal of the National Education Association, volume 23, pages 45-52, February, 1934. "Education, the Foundation of Enduring Recovery."

Journal of the National Education Association, volume 23, page 93, March, 1934. "Government Takes Steps to Aid Schools."

Literary Digest, volume 117, page 42, March 17, 1934. "See Federal Aid to Schools as Imperative."

Lutheran Quarterly, volume 55, pages 63-77, January, 1925. "Shall Education be Federalized?" J. H. Harms.

Nation, volume 137, pages 182-185, August 16, 1933. "The Teacher Faces the Depression." Eunice Langdon.

Nation's Business, volume 14, pages 23-24, March, 1926. "Let's Stop This Fifty-Fifty Business." J. W. Wadsworth.

Nation's Schools, volume 12, pages 15-18, November, 1933. "A Sound Finance Program Will Save the Public Schools." J. K. Norton.

Nation's Schools, volume 13, pages 10-11, January, 1934. Editorial, "Looking Forward."

Nation's Schools, volume 13, pages 20-22, January, 1934. "National Government Must Take Part in Financing Education." P. R. Mort.

Nation's Schools, volume 13, pages 34-35, January, 1934. "What Others Have to Say About Federal Subsidies." A symposium.

Nation's Schools, volume 13, page 47, February, 1934. "Federal Aid for Public Schools is Inevitable." Fred Engelhardt.

Nation's Schools, volume 14, pages 12-15, July, 1934. "The Real Peril of Federal Subsidies." J. J. Tigert.

Nation's Schools, volume 14, pages 9-11, September, 1934. Editorial, "Federal Aid Again."

Nation's Schools, volume 14, pages 12-16, September, 1934. "Education and Government." Alfred E. Smith.

Nation's Schools, volume 14, pages 25-26, September, 1934. "Some Arguments Against Federal Aid." P. C. Stetson.

Nation's Schools, volume 14, pages 17-19, November, 1934. "Five Principles Essential to Federal Aid for Education." J. C. Morrison.

New York Times for July 3, 1934, page 15. "Implies Roosevelt Blocks School Aid." Eunice Barnard.

New York Times Magazine for April 15, 1934, pages 3, 20. "Our Schools Face a Day of Reckoning." Eunice Barnard.

Progressive Education, volume 10, pages 441-443, December, 1933. "National Support for our Public Schools." P. R. Mort.

Review of Reviews, volume 90, pages 35-37, July, 1934. "The Peril of Subsidies for Education." J. J. Tigert.

Review of Reviews, volume 90, page 51, July, 1934. Editorial, "Keep Schools Out of Politics."

Saturday Evening Post, volume 202, page 24, January 4, 1930. Editorial, "Education and Government."

Saturday Evening Post, volume 203, pages 22-23, 117, 118, 121, January 10, 1931. "Leaning on Uncle Sam." A. W. Atwood.

Saturday Evening Post, volume 203, pages 25, 88 and 95, April 18, 1931. "How Far Should Government Go?" A. W. Atwood.

School Executive's Magazine, volume 53, pages 262-263, May, 1934. "A Plea for Federal Aid." J. K. Norton.

School Life, volume 12, pages 81-82, January, 1927. "Complete State Support Wisest Way to Finance Public Schools." F. H. Swift.

School Life, volume 17, page 586, January, 1932. "North Carolina's School Tax Revolution." A. T. Allen.

School Life, volume 18, page 126, March, 1933. "The Way Out for Education." W. J. Cooper.

School Life, volume 19, pages 89-92, January, 1934. "Since March 4: The Chronological Record of the Development of the Federal Emergency Educational Program."

School Life, volume 20, page 3, September, 1934. "For Federal Aid Debaters." Martha R. McCabe.

School Life, volume 20, pages 28, 31, October, 1934. "Aid for Federal Aid Debaters." Martha R. McCabe.

School and Society, volume 29, pages 845-846, June 22, 1929. "Local Self-Government in Education." R. L. Wilbur.

School and Society, volume 30, pages 76-79, July 20, 1930. "Who Shall Say What the Nation May Expect of American Schools?" W. J. Cooper.

School and Society, volume 36, pages 165-166, August 6, 1932. "Expenditure for Education in the United States."

School and Society, volume 38, pages 1-7, July 1, 1933. "Financing Education During the Period of the Depression." G. D. Strayer.

School and Society, volume 38, pages 225-233, August 19, 1933. "Federal Financing of Education." W. F. Russell.

School and Society, volume 38, pages 641-642, November 11, 1933. "Future of Public Education." R. M. Hutchins.

School and Society, volume 39, pages 225-231, February 24, 1934. "Federal Aid for Public Schools." A. P. James.

School and Society, volume 39, pages 289-296, March 10, 1934. "Federal Aid—Boon or Bane." W. F. Russell.

School and Society, volume 40, pages 41-48, July 14, 1934. "Federal Aid to Education." G. F. Zook.

School and Society, volume 40, page 317, September 8, 1934. "The Federal Government and the Schools."

School and Society, volume 40, pages 337-344, September 15, 1934. "The Implications of Federal Aid to Education." R. A. Kent.

School and Society, volume 40, pages 636-639, November 10, 1934. "The Association of Urban Universities." Raymond Walters.

Scribner's Magazine, volume 93, pages 129-131, February, 1933. "The Crisis in Education." W. J. Cooper.

Teachers' College Record, volume 25, pages 592-599, April, 1934. "A National Outlook on Education." J. K. Norton and C. L. Kulp.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
EXTENSION BULLETIN
VOL. XIV OCTOBER, 1934 NO. 3

ACADEMIC CONTESTS FOR NORTH CAROLINA HIGH SCHOOLS

ANNOUNCEMENT FOR THE YEAR
1934-1935

Published six times a year, July, September, October, November, January, and March, by the University of North Carolina Press, Entered as second-class matter October 19, 1921, Chapel Hill, N. C.

EXTENSION BULLETINS

Vol. III, No. 14. *How to Know and Use the Trees.* W. C. Coker and Enid Matherly. Price 50c.

Vol. IV, No. 12. *Children of Old Carolina.* Historical Pageant for Children. Ethel T. Rockwell. Price 25c.

Vol. VII, No. 9. *Special Legal Relations of Married Women in N. C. as to Property, Contracts, and Guardianship.* Mary P. Smith. Price 25c.

Vol. VII, No. 11. *The Child and the Home.* E. R. Groves. Price 25c.

Vol. VII, No. 13. *High School Library Standards.* Price 25c.

Vol. VIII, No. 5. *The World Court.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 25c.

Vol. VIII, No. 6. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1928. Price 50c.

Vol. VIII, No. 7. *Scenery and Lighting for School and Little Theatre Stages.* Samuel Selden. Price 50c.

Vol. VIII, No. 8. *Studies in Taxation.* North Carolina Club Yearbook. 1927-1928. Price 50c.

Vol. IX, No. 4. *The Classification of Property for Taxation.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. IX, No. 5. *Country Life in North Carolina.* North Carolina Club Yearbook. 1928-1929. Price 25c.

Vol. IX, No. 8. *Plays for Schools and Little Theatres.* Frederick Koch and Nettina Strobach. Price 25c.

Vol. X, No. 2. *Contemporary Industrial Processes.* North Carolina Club Yearbook. 1929-1930. Price 75c.

Vol. X, No. 4. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1929. Price 50c.

Vol. X, No. 5. *Independence for the Philippines.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. X, No. 9. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1930. Price 50c.

Vol. XI, No. 3. *Compulsory Unemployment Insurance.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 25c.

Vol. XI, No. 6. *A Two-Year Course in Spanish, with Suggestions for a Third Year.* Price 25c.

Vol. XI, No. 7. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1931. Price 50c.

Vol. XII, No. 4. *Taxation in North Carolina.* Price 25c.

Vol. XII, No. 5. *The Sales Tax.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. XIII, No. 3. *Radio Control and Operation.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. XIII, No. 6. *Correspondence Instruction.* 1934-1935. Free.

Vol. XIV, No. 2. *Federal Aid to Education.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. XIV, No. 3. *Academic Contests for North Carolina High Schools.* Announcements for the year 1934-35. Free.

MONEY ORDERS, CHECKS, OR STAMPS ACCEPTED
ADDRESS: UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION,
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

ACADEMIC CONTESTS FOR NORTH CAROLINA HIGH SCHOOLS

Announcement

Announcement is made in this number of the University of North Carolina Extension Bulletin of the regulations which will govern the following academic contests for North Carolina high schools, to be conducted in the spring of 1935: the eleventh annual high school Latin contest, the tenth annual high school French contest, the tenth annual high school Spanish contest, and the tenth annual high school Mathematics contest.

By means of these contests the University Extension Division and the several departments concerned of the University of North Carolina hope to render a service to the high schools through an increase in the interest of North Carolina high school students in the field of scholarship, particularly in the study of the designated subjects, Latin, French, Spanish, and Mathematics. Since these contests were inaugurated, with the first annual high school Latin contest held on February 18, 1925, they have met with a very cordial reception on the part of the high schools of the State. The central committee at the University hopes that the contests will be found helpful by the high schools and that they will prove generally successful this year.

The dates for the holding of these different contests are as follows: Latin contest, February 22; French contest, March 8; Spanish contest, March 22; and Mathematics contest, March 19.

All accredited North Carolina public high schools are invited to enter the contests. The school officials whose schools plan to enter the contests should notify E. R. Rankin, Secretary, at Chapel Hill, at their earliest convenience regarding the participation of their high schools and regarding the number of pupils whom they will have to enter the different contests.

The attention of school officials and teachers is called to the following general regulations, which will apply to all four of the high school academic contests, and to the special regulations which will govern each particular contest.

GENERAL REGULATIONS

1. The University Extension Division and the several departments concerned of the University of North Carolina will conduct, with the coöperation of participating high schools, contests in the spring of 1935 in Latin, French, Spanish, and Mathematics for high school students, participation in these contests being open to accredited North Carolina public high schools.

2. The contests will be conducted in all cases under the direct supervision of the superintendents, high school principals, or teachers in the schools.

3. No student who has already been graduated from a high school shall be eligible to participate in the academic contests.

4. It is necessary for all students to be regularly enrolled in their high schools at the time of their participation in the academic contests.

5. The tests in all of these contests will be forwarded from Chapel Hill to the individual schools in sealed envelopes, which are not to be opened until the time when the examinations are given.

6. It will be necessary in each case that the individual student give a pledge stating that no help has been given or received on the test.

7. Superintendents, principals, or teachers in charge of the contests will give assurance to the committee that the contests have been properly conducted and that all of the regulations and conditions pertaining to the contests have been observed.

THE HIGH SCHOOL LATIN CONTEST

1. The contest will take place throughout the State on February 22, 1935.

2. Students who may take part in the Latin contest are limited to members of the sophomore, junior, and senior classes.

3. This examination will require (1) an ability to translate passages of comparatively easy Latin, will include (2) questions on form and syntax based on such passages, and will include (3) questions involving a general knowledge of grammar.

4. The individual school will select the best three papers from the total of the papers submitted in the local contest and will send these three papers to the Secretary of the Latin Contest Committee at Chapel Hill by February 28, 1935.

5. The papers, as they are sent in by the various high schools, will be graded by faculty members of the department of Latin of the University. Announcement will be made of the school whose student wins first place. Honorable mention will be given to several schools whose students submit next best papers.

6. All schools deciding to enter the contest will notify the committee at Chapel Hill not later than February 18 of their plan to participate and will also notify this committee as to the number of students of the particular high school who will wish to enter the contest.

THE HIGH SCHOOL FRENCH CONTEST

1. The contest will take place throughout the State on March 8, 1935.

2. The high school French contest is intended only for students in second year French who have had no special advantages nor private instruction in the language.

3. The scope of the contest will include: (1) a vocabulary test, (2) the conjugation of several representative verbs, (3) the composing of French sentences illustrating different grammatical points, and (4) a reading test.

4. The individual school will select the best three papers from the total of papers submitted in the local contest and will send these three papers to the secretary of the French Contest Committee at Chapel Hill by March 14, 1935. *The high school teacher is expected to score and to record the number of errors in each paper which is sent to Chapel Hill. Papers which have not been scored and on which the errors have not been recorded will be automatically disqualified.*

5. The papers from the various high schools will be graded by faculty members of the department of French of the University. Announcement will be made of the three best individual papers in order of excellence, with honorable mention to the next twelve. Announcement will also be made of the three schools whose three-student teams make the best showing.

6. All schools deciding to enter the contest will notify the committee at Chapel Hill not later than March 4 of their plan to participate and will also notify this committee as to the number of students of the particular high school who will wish to enter the contest.

THE HIGH SCHOOL SPANISH CONTEST

1. The contest will take place throughout the State on March 22, 1935.

2. Students who may take part in the Spanish contest are limited to the sophomore, junior, and senior classes. The contest will be of a practical nature, enabling the student to show what facility he has acquired in handling Spanish verbs, grammar, and reading.

3. The individual school will select the best three papers from the total of the papers submitted in the local contest and will send these three papers to the Secretary of the Spanish Contest Committee at Chapel Hill by March 28, 1935. *The high school teacher is expected to score and to record the number of errors in each paper which is sent to Chapel Hill. Papers which have not been scored and on which the errors have not been recorded will be automatically disqualified.*

4. The papers from the various high schools will be graded by faculty members of the department of Spanish of the University. Announcement will be made of the school whose student wins first place. Honorable mention will be given to several schools whose students submit next best papers.

5. All schools deciding to enter the contest will notify the committee at Chapel Hill not later than March 18 of their plan to participate and will also notify this committee as to the number of students of the particular high school who will wish to enter the contest.

THE HIGH SCHOOL MATHEMATICS CONTEST

1. The high school Mathematics contest will take place throughout the State on April 19, 1935.

2. Students who may take part in the Mathematics contest are limited to members of the sophomore, junior, and senior classes.

3. The scope of the contest will include: (1) an arithmetic test, (2) an algebra test, and (3) a plane geometry test.

4. The individual school will select the best paper from the total of papers submitted in the local contest and will send this paper to the Secretary of the Mathematics Contest Committee at Chapel Hill by April 25, 1935. Only one paper is to be sent to Chapel Hill from each school. Each paper submitted in the contest must carry the name of the writer, the name and address of the school, and the name of the principal.

5. The papers, as they are sent in by the various schools, will be graded by faculty members of the department of Mathematics of the University. Announcement will be made of the school whose student wins first place. Honorable mention will be given to several schools whose students submit next best papers.

6. All schools deciding to enter the contest will notify the committee at Chapel Hill not later than April 15 of their plan to participate and will also notify this committee as to the number of students of the particular high school who will wish to enter the contest.

WINNERS OF ACADEMIC CONTESTS IN THE PAST

THE LATIN CONTEST

The Charlotte High School, 1925
The Lillington High School, 1926
The Wilson High School, 1927
The Roxboro High School, 1928
The Durham High School, 1929
The Durham High School, 1930
The Durham High School, 1931
The Roxboro High School, 1932
The Wilson High School, 1933
The Durham High School, 1934

THE FRENCH CONTEST

The Raleigh High School, 1926
The Davidson High School, 1927
The Forest City High School, 1928
The Lenoir High School, 1929
The Greensboro High School, 1930
The Fayetteville High School, 1931
The Louisburg High School (tie), 1932
The Sylva High School (tie), 1932
The Oxford High School, 1933
The Louisburg High School, 1934

THE SPANISH CONTEST

The Statesville High School, 1926
The Statesville High School, 1927
The Reidsville High School, 1928
The Albemarle High School, 1929
The Albemarle High School, 1930
The Fayetteville High School, 1931
The Gastonia High School, 1932
The Gastonia High School, 1933
The Gastonia High School, 1934

THE MATHEMATICS CONTEST

The Ayden High School, 1926
The Charlotte High School, 1927
The Ahoskie High School, 1928
The Rocky Mount High School, 1929
The Greensboro High School, 1930
The Greensboro High School, 1931
The Durham High School, 1932
The Durham High School, 1933
The Broughton High School, 1934

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION SERVICES

The University of North Carolina offers, through the Extension Division, the following services to the people of the state:

Correspondence Instruction. One hundred and thirty university courses are offered by mail. These courses carry college and certification credit. High school graduates and others unable to attend college find home-study an economical and satisfactory method of continuing their education.

Extension Class Instruction. Late afternoon, evening, and Saturday classes are organized wherever enough enrollments to cover expenses are secured. Courses of both a vocational and cultural nature are offered, with college credit, if desired.

Library Service. Reading courses, books, and reference material are loaned to individuals and groups interested in the systematic study and discussion of literary, historical, social, and other subjects. There are available about fifty outlines for study suitable for women's clubs or other groups.

Lectures. Popular and technical lectures and readings by members of the faculty are arranged for schools, clubs, and other community organizations. Lecture courses either on a particular subject or a series of topics may be obtained. Short courses and institutes are held at the University for groups interested in intensive training and instructional programs.

Dramatic Arts. Assistance is given in organization for dramatic activities, in play selection and production, and in the loan of playbooks and other library material. An annual tournament is conducted in coöperation with the Carolina Dramatic Association.

Interscholastic Activities. In coöperation with several University departments and state agencies, the Division conducts annual contests in debating, athletics, and academic subjects. A coaching school is held each summer for high school coaches and athletic directors.

Publications. *The University News Letter*, containing the results of studies made of economic and social conditions in North Carolina, is sent free to residents of the state. There are also issued annually several numbers of *The Extension Bulletin* containing information of interest to general readers.

For information concerning any of these services, write to the UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION, Chapel Hill, N. C.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
EXTENSION BULLETIN
VOL. XIV NOVEMBER, 1934 NO. 4

SOUTHERN WRITERS' CONFERENCE

BLUE RIDGE, N. C.
August 5-17, 1935

Published six times a year, July, September, October, November, January, and March, by the University of North Carolina Press, Entered as second-class matter October 19, 1921, Chapel Hill, N. C.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

Single copies, 50 cents each.

Vol. V, No. 9. *A Study of Shakespeare.* Russell Potter.
Vol. V, No. 10. *Studies in Southern Literature.* Revised Edition. Addison Hibbard.
Vol. VI, No. 3. *A Study Course in International One-Act Plays.* Ethel T. Rockwell.
Vol. VI, No. 4. *Studies in the Development of the Short Story: English and American.* L. B. Wright.
Vol. VI, No. 9. *Studies in Modern Drama.* Revised Edition. Elizabeth L. Green.
Vol. VI, No. 12. *Studies in American Literature.* Revised Edition. Addison Hibbard.
Vol. VII, No. 2. *Adventures in Reading:* Current Books, 1926-1927. Russell Potter.
Vol. VII, No. 4. *Our Heritage: A Study Through Literature of the American Tradition.* James Holly Hanford.
Vol. VII, No. 14. *The Negro in Contemporary American Literature.* E. L. Green.
Vol. VIII, No. 2. *Other People's Lives: A Biographical Round-up.* Current Books, 1927-1928. Cornelia Spencer Love.
Vol. VIII, No. 3. *Contemporary Southern Literature.* Howard Mumford Jones.
Vol. VIII, No. 4. *Recent Poetry from the South.* Addison Hibbard.
Vol. VIII, No. 9. *Contemporary Spanish Literature in English Translation.* Agatha Boyd Adams and Nicholson B. Adams.
Vol. VIII, No. 10. *Adventures in Reading, Second Series:* Current Books, 1928-1929. Russell Potter.
Vol. IX, No. 3. *A Study Course in American One-Act Plays.* Revised Edition. Ethel T. Rockwell.
Vol. IX, No. 7. *The French Novel in English Translation.* U. T. Holmes, Jr.
Vol. IX, No. 10. *The South in Contemporary Literature.* Addison Hibbard.
Vol. X, No. 1. *Adventures in Reading, Third Series:* Current Books, 1929-1930. Marjorie N. Bond and Richmond P. Bond.
Vol. X, No. 6. *Other People's Lives, Second Series.* 1929-1930. C. S. Love.
Vol. X, No. 10. *Books of Travel.* Revised Edition. Urban T. Holmes, Jr.
Vol. XI, No. 1. *Adventures in Reading, Fourth Series:* Current Books, 1930-1931. Marjorie N. Bond and Richmond P. Bond.
Vol. XI, No. 8. *Romance of the Western Frontier.* Fletcher M. Green.
Vol. XII, No. 1. *Modern Russia.* Eston Everett Ericson and Ervid Eric Ericson.
Vol. XII, No. 2. *Famous Women of Yesterday and Today.* Cornelia S. Love.
Vol. XIII, No. 1. *Twentieth-Century American Literature.* Revised Edition of *Contemporary American Literature.* Marjorie N. Bond.
Vol. XIII, No. 2. *Other People's Lives, Third Series.* 1932-1933. Cornelia S. Love.
Vol. XIII, No. 5. *Adventures in Reading, Sixth Series:* Current Books, 1933. Marjorie N. Bond.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA LIBRARY EXTENSION PUBLICATION

Vol. I, No. 1. October, 1934. *The Southern Garden.* W. L. Hunt.
Vol. I, No. 2. January, 1935. *Adventures in Reading, Seventh Series.* C. S. Love.
Vol. I, No. 3. April, 1935. *Below the Potomac.* Marjorie N. Bond.
Vol. I, No. 4. May, 1935. *Europe in Transition.* Phillips Russell.

The reading courses of the University of North Carolina, formerly issued as *University Extension Bulletin*, are continued under a new series, *Library Extension Publication.* The following programs are in preparation for 1935-36:

Twentieth Century English Literature, by Marjorie N. Bond.
Other People's Lives, Fourth Series, by Cornelia Spencer Love.
Musical Spotlights, by Adeline Denham McCall.
Adventures in Reading, Eighth Series, Marjorie N. Bond.
The Theatre Today, by Paul Green.
Story of the Book, by Robert Bingham Downs.
Modern Architecture, by James Emerson Greenaway.

For further information write to the University Extension Division, Chapel Hill, N. C.

MONEY ORDERS, CHECKS, OR STAMPS ACCEPTED
ADDRESS: UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION,
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

SOUTHERN WRITERS' CONFERENCE
BLUE RIDGE, N. C.

August 5-17, 1935.

Believing that the marked interest in writing, noteworthy throughout the country and especially in the southern states in recent years, can be helped to shape itself, the Extension Division of the University of North Carolina is sponsoring in the mountains of North Carolina this summer a conference in which competent writers, professional and amateur, can meet and discuss questions of common interest.

The conference will be held at Blue Ridge, two miles from Black Mountain, N. C., and fifteen miles east of Asheville, August 5-17.

The conference is not to be regarded as a school or even an institute. Formal instruction and organized courses and credits are not contemplated. The conference will necessarily be informal in nature, and its aim will be to provide a forum, or directed system of forums, rather than classes. Its sponsors believe in the necessity of good workmanship and adequate technique and through the conference hope to encourage the development of better and more satisfying written expression.

PURPOSES

Among the purposes of the conference are the following:

1. To provide an attractive holiday meeting place for writers both of promise and performance.
2. To encourage writing which has good form and adequate content.
3. To consider the regional aspects of literary composition.
4. To establish a connection between contemporary literature and that of the past and indicate present trends.
5. To suggest criteria by which manuscripts, whether produced for sale or for personal and cultural purposes, may be judged.
6. To provide professional discussions between writers, editors, booksellers, publishers, and other interested persons.
7. To consider recent developments in politics, economics, and social life in their bearing on modern literature.
8. To discuss the position and functions of the present-day writer.
9. To discourage the idea that literary composition should be undertaken without study, practice, discipline, and without the serving of a reasonable apprenticeship.
10. To consider the usefulness and benefits of local clubs or circles of writers.

To carry out these purposes lectures, round-table discussions, informal debates, shop-talks, readings, group-meetings, and general discussions will be provided, to be led by experienced writers, editors, and teachers. The Conference will be under the direction of Phillips Russell.

WHERE THE CONFERENCE MEETS

Blue Ridge is already known to many persons on account of its beautiful and secluded situation, its comfortable and inexpensive accommodations, and its special attractions. It may be reached by Southern

Railway trains to Black Mountain, N. C., which is the telegraph station, or by fine automobile highways—N. C. No. 10, U. S. No. 70. There is a postoffice on the grounds.

Guests will be received at Robert E. Lee Hall, a commodious building equipped with all customary conveniences. From the veranda here a superb mountain view unrolls itself. The estate comprises 1600 acres of dense wooded land, covered with typical mountain trees, rhododendron, azalea, and laurel. There are excellent roads for motoring, and ample paths and trails for riding, walking and hiking. Asheville is only fifteen miles away, and within easy distance are Mt. Mitchell, Chimney Rock, Lake James, Lake Lure, Little Switzerland, Shumont Peak, Biltmore, Grove Park Inn, Pisgah Forest, and Marion.

Visitors are advised to bring clothing suitable for outdoor use and for the cool mountain air on mornings and evenings.

DIVERSIONS

There are ample facilities for swimming, boating, tennis, volley ball, horseback riding, and rambling. There is a pool of clear mountain water close to the veranda's edge and there are canoes for hire on the lake with lifeguards on duty. Golf courses are accessible.

Conference activities will be carried on chiefly in the mornings and evenings. Visitors may use their afternoons as they choose.

It is especially urged that participants in the conference be prepared to contribute to its diversional programs. Musical instruments, songs, playlets, ideas for games, and favorite books should be brought ready for use.

ACCOMMODATIONS

Persons attending the Conference will make their own arrangements for accommodations. The management at Blue Ridge will have sole charge of all matters relating to rooms, food, and service. Rates are as follows:

ROOMS:

Two in a room without bath, each	$1.00 per day
One in a room without bath	$1.50 per day
Two in a room with bath, each	$1.50 per day
One in a room with bath	$2.00 per day

Children under ten years, ½ adult rate.
Discount by the week, 10%.

MEALS:

Cafeteria varying from 75 cents to $1.25 per day.
Dining Room: (serving longer hours and with individual service) $10.50 per week; $1.75 per day.
Single Meals: Breakfast 40 cents; Lunch 60 cents; Dinner, 75 cents; Sunday Dinner, $1.00.

NURSES and CHAUFFEURS:

$1.50 per week. If staying in room with children, regular adult rate.

Reservations considered released if not claimed by 9:00 p.m. of date of arrival (unless advance notice of delay has been received.) Exceptionally low round trip railroad rates to Blue Ridge on sale beginning May 15, good until September 30.

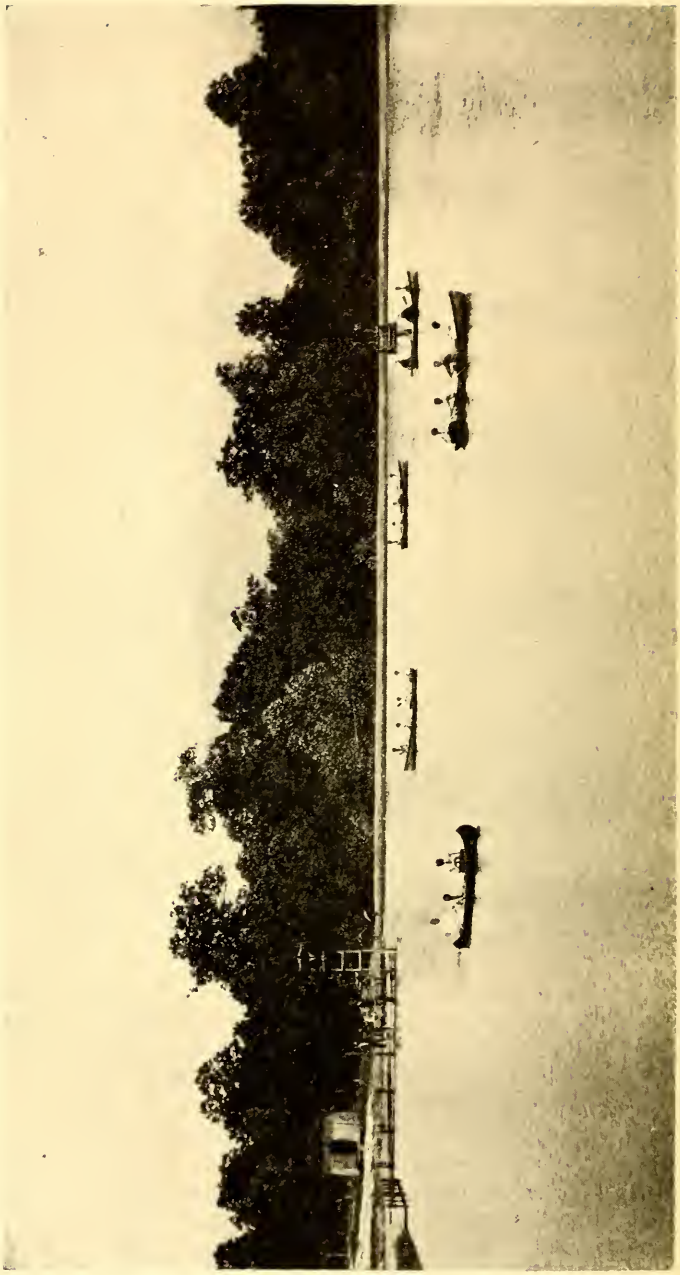
REGISTRATION

The conference is open to all persons interested in its aims. The registration fee is $10.00 per week. Participants in the conference may register for one week or two. Visitors who may wish to attend for short periods may pay a special fee at the rate of $2.00 a day. All fees are payable to the University Extension Division and apply to the conference only and do not cover living and other expenses.

Application for admission and all correspondence should be addressed to R. M. Grumman, Secretary, Southern Writers' Conference, Chapel Hill, N. C. A deposit of $5.00, payable by money order or check, should be included with application (on page 7) properly filled out. This will be returned in case application cannot be accepted due to lateness of registration or other reasons. Balance of registration fee is payable at time of arrival at Blue Ridge.

Since the attendance must necessarily be limited, registration should be applied for as far in advance as possible.

The total expense, including registration and accommodations, should be not far from $50 for two weeks. Visitors should plan to arrive on August 3 or 4, and register at once with the Conference Secretary. The first meeting will be held at ten o'clock Monday morning, August 5. The final meeting will be held at eleven a. m., Saturday, August 17.



BLUE RIDGE SWIMMING AND BOATING LAKE

APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION

THE SOUTHERN WRITERS' CONFERENCE

University Extension Division
Chapel Hill, N. C.

Date.....

1. Name ..... Age.....
2. Address .....
3. Training in Writing .....
4. Writing Experience .....
5. School or College Attended .....
6. Occupation .....
7. Check special interest:

   Prose composition .....; poetry.....; short story.....;

   novel.....; essay.....; article.....; publishing.....
8. Amount of deposit enclosed: $.....
9. Plan to attend ..... to .....
   date date
10. Remarks:

V. 14, no. 5 not published

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
EXTENSION BULLETIN

VOL. XIV MARCH, 1935 NO. 6

CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION

ANNOUNCEMENTS FOR THE SESSIONS 1935-1936

Published six times a year, July, September, October, November, January, and March, by the University of North Carolina Press. Entered as second-class matter October 19, 1921, Chapel Hill, N. C.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

Vol. III, No. 14. *How to Know and Use the Trees.* W. C. Coker and Enid Matherly. Price 50c.

Vol. IV, No. 12. *Children of Old Carolina.* Historical Pageant for Children. Ethel T. Rockwell. Price 25c.

Vol. VII, No. 9. *Special Legal Relations of Married Women in N. C. as to Property, Contracts, and Guardianship.* Mary P. Smith. Price 25c.

Vol. VII, No. 11. *The Child and the Home.* E. R. Groves. Price 25c.

Vol. VII, No. 13. *High School Library Standards.* Price 25c.

Vol. VIII, No. 5. *The World Court.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 25c.

Vol. VIII, No. 6. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1928. Price 50c.

Vol. VIII, No. 7. *Scenery and Lighting for School and Little Theatre Stages.* Samuel Selden. Price 50c.

Vol. VIII, No. 8. *Studies in Taxation.* North Carolina Club Yearbook. 1927-1928. Price 50c.

Vol. IX, No. 4. *The Classification of Property for Taxation.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. IX, No. 5. *Country Life in North Carolina.* North Carolina Club Yearbook. 1928-1929. Price 25c.

Vol. IX, No. 8. *Plays for Schools and Little Theatres.* Frederick Koch and Nettina Strobach. Price 25c.

Vol. X, No. 2. *Contemporary Industrial Processes.* North Carolina Club Yearbook. 1929-1930. Price 75c.

Vol. X, No. 4. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1929. Price 50c.

Vol. X, No. 5. *Independence for the Philippines.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. X, No. 9. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1930. Price 50c.

Vol. XI, No. 3. *Compulsory Unemployment Insurance.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 25c.

Vol. XI, No. 6. *A Two-Year Course in Spanish, with Suggestions for a Third Year.* Price 25c.

Vol. XI, No. 7. *Southern Conference on Education.* Proceedings, 1931. Price 50c.

Vol. XII, No. 4. *Taxation in North Carolina.* Price 25c.

Vol. XII, No. 5. *The Sales Tax.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. XIII, No. 3. *Radio Control and Operation.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. XIV, No. 2. *Federal Aid to Education.* Debate Handbook. Compiled by E. R. Rankin. Price 50c.

Vol. XIV, No. 3. *Academic Contests for North Carolina High Schools.* Announcements for the year 1934-35. Free.

Vol. XIV, No. 5. *Correspondence Instruction.* 1935-1936. Free.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA LIBRARY EXTENSION PUBLICATION

Vol. I, No. 1. October, 1934. *The Southern Garden.* W. L. Hunt.

Vol. I, No. 2. January, 1935. *Adventures in Reading, Seventh Series.* C. S. Love.

Vol. I, No. 3. April, 1935. *Below the Potomac.* Marjorie N. Bond.

Vol. I, No. 4. May, 1935. *Europe in Transition.* Phillips Russell.

Vol. I, No. 5. June, 1935. *Other People's Lives, No. 4.* Cornelia S. Love.

Vol. I, No. 6. July, 1935. *The Story of Books.* R. B. Downs.

Vol. II, No. 1. October, 1935. *Adventures with Music and Musicians.* Adeline Denham McCall.

For further information write to the University Extension Division, Chapel Hill, N. C.

MONEY ORDERS, CHECKS, OR STAMPS ACCEPTED

ADDRESS: UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION,
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION
BUREAU OF CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION

ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

FRANK PORTER GRAHAM, M.A., LL.D., *President.*
ROBERT BURTON HOUSE, A.M., *Dean of Administration.*
RUSSELL MARVIN GRUMMAN, B.H., *Director.*
WILLIAM JOHN MCKEE, C.E., Ph.D., *Supervisor of Instruction.*
MARY LOUISA COBB, A.B., *Chief of Bureau of Correspondence Instruction.*
NELLIE ROBERSON, A.B., *Chief of Library Extension Service.*

ADMINISTRATIVE BOARD*

DUDLEY DEWITT CARROLL, M.A.,*Professor of Economics and Dean of the School of Commerce.*
WESLEY CRITZ GEORGE, Ph.D., *Professor of Histology and Embryology.*
ALLAN WILSON HOBBS, Ph.D., *Professor of Applied Mathematics and Dean of the College of Liberal Arts.*
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON HOBBS, JR., Ph.D., *Professor of Rural Social-Economics.*
WILLIAM JOHN MCKEE, C.E., Ph.D., *Professor of Education in Extension Teaching and Head of the Department of In-Service Teacher Training.*
HOWARD WASHINGTON ODUM, Ph.D., *Kenan Professor of Sociology and Director of the School of Public Welfare.*
WILLIAM WHATLEY PIERSON, JR., Ph.D., *Professor of History and Government and Dean of the Graduate School.*
NATHAN WILSON WALKER, A.B., Ed.M., *Professor of Secondary Education.*

CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION

Members of the University Faculty

RAYMOND WILLIAM ADAMS, Ph.D., *Assistant Professor of English.*
JAMES OSLER BAILEY, A.M., *Assistant Professor of English.*
GLADYS ANGEL BEARD, A.M., *Assistant Professor of Education in Extension Teaching.*
NORA BEUST, A.M., *Assistant Professor of Library Administration.*
RICHMOND PUGH BOND, Ph.D., *Associate Professor of English.*
**LEE MARSHALL BROOKS, Ph.D., *Assistant Professor of Sociology.*
ROY MELTON BROWN, Ph.D., *Associate Professor of Public Administration.*
JOHN FREDERICK DASHIELL, Ph.D., *Kenan Professor of Psychology.*
SAMUEL THOMAS EMORY, A. M., *Assistant Professor of Geology.*
JAMES GILBERT EVANS, A.M., *Assistant Professor of Economics.*
GUSTAV ADOLPHUS HARRER, Ph.D., *Kenan Professor of Latin.*
GLEN HAYDON, Ph.D., *Professor of Music.*
MILTON SYDNEY HEATH, A.M., *Associate Professor of Economics.*
RICHARD JUNIUS MENDENHALL HOBBS, A.B., LL.B., *Professor of Business Law.*
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON HOBBS, JR., Ph.D., *Professor of Rural Social-Economics.*
GEORGE HOWARD, Ph.D., *Professor of Education in Extension Teaching.*
ALMONTE CHARLES HOWELL, Ph.D., *Associate Professor of English.*

* The Dean of Administration, the Registrar, and the Dean of Students are *ex officio* members of the Administrative Board.
** On leave 1935-36.

Arthur Palmer Hudson, Ph.D., *Professor of English.*
William Sumner Jenkins, LL.B., Ph.D., *Assistant Professor of History.*
Cecil Johnson, Ph.D., *Assistant Professor of History.*
Guy Benton Johnson, Ph.D., *Research Associate in the Institute for Research in Social Science.*
Arthur Melville Jordan, Ph.D., *Professor of Educational Psychology.*
*Arnold Kimsey King., A.M., *Assistant Professor of the Teaching of History.*
Edgar Wallace Knight, Ph.D., *Professor of Education.*
John Wayne Lasley, Jr., Ph.D., *Professor of Pure Mathematics.*
Joe Burton Linker, Ph.D., *Associate Professor of Mathematics.*
John Coriden Lyons, Ph.D., *Professor of French.*
Gerald Raleigh MacCarthy, Ph.D., *Associate Professor of Geology.*
Thomas Smith McCorkle, B.Mus., *Associate Professor of Music.*
William John McKee, C.E., Ph.D., *Professor of Education in Extension Teaching.*
William Albert McKnight, B.S., *Instructor in Spanish.*
Ernst Christian Metzenthin, Ph.D., *Associate Professor of German.*
Harold Diedrich Meyer, A.M., *Professor of Sociology.*
Henry Grady Miller, *Instructor in Music.*
William Anderson Olsen, A.M., *Assistant Professor of English.*
Carl Hamilton Pegg, Ph.D., *Assistant Professor of History.*
Carleton Estey Preston, Ph.D., *Associate Professor of the Teaching of Science.*
William Frederick Prouty, Ph.D., *Professor of Stratigraphic Geology.*
Charles Baskerville Robson, Ph.D., *Assistant Professor of Government.*
Josiah Cox Russell, Ph.D., *Assistant Professor of History.*
Shipp Gillespie Sanders, A.M., *Associate Professor of Latin.*
Robert Howard Sherrill, A.M., C.P.A., *Associate Professor of Accounting.*
*Marion Rex Trabue, Ph.D., *Professor of Educational Administration.*
William Lester Wilson, A.M., *Instructor in English.*
Rex Shelton Winslow, A.M., *Instructor in Economics.*
John Brooks Woosley, Ph.D., *Professor of Economics.*

Non-Faculty Assistants

Earl Horace Hartsell, A.B.
Carrie Nicholson Jordan, Ph.B.
Carol Nygard, A.M.
Sarah Duncan Olsen, A.M.
Hugh Preston Smith, M.A.

---

* On leave 1935-36.

LIST OF COURSES

PAGE

Economics and Commerce 21-22
- General Economics
- Economic History
- Credit and Banking
- Accounting
- Business Law
- Business English
- Investments

Education 22-26
- Introduction to Educational Psychology
- Educational Sociology See Sociology)
- General Introduction to the Study of Education
- Educational Psychology
- Public School Education in the South
- Rural Education
- Historic Foundations of Modern Education
- Public Education in the United States
- Introductory Course in School Administration
- The Public School Principalship
- Classroom Management
- Principles of Secondary Education
- General Methods in Secondary Education
- Tests and Measurements in Elementary Education
- Curriculum Construction
- Psychology of Elementary Education
- Child Psychology
- Reading and Study Habits for the Primary Grades
- Reading and Study Habits for the Grammar Grades
- Arithmetic for the Grammar Grades
- Language and Composition for Grammar Grades

English 27-29
- Freshman English
- Sophomore English
- English of Commerce

PAGE

- Modern Drama
- The Contemporary American Short Story
- The Teaching of Literature
- The Short Story
- Dramatic Composition
- Shakespeare
- American Literature
- English Literature
- The Nineteenth Century Novel

Geology 29-30
- Introduction to General Geology
- Introductory Earth Science
- Industrial and Commercial Geography
- Principles of Geography
- Physical Geography

German 30
- Intermediate Course
- Advanced German

History and Government 30-31
- Foundations of Modern History
- English History
- American History
- The Government of the United States
- The Governments of Europe
- American State Government

Latin 31-32
- Readings in Roman Literature
- Latin Poetry
- Latin Composition

Library Science 32
- Book Selection for Children's Libraries

Mathematics 32-33
- Mathematical Analysis
- College Algebra
- Trigonometry

Music 33
- Theory of Music
- History of Music
- Harmony

PAGE

Natural Science 33-34

Physical and Health Education 34

Psychology 34
General Psychology

Romance Languages 34-35
French—Composition and Reading—Advanced
Intermediate French
French Literature
Spanish Composition
Spanish Literature

Rural-Social-Economics 35-36
Rural Economics
History of Agriculture
Rural Sociology

PAGE

North Carolina: Economic and Social

Social Science 36
Problems of Citizenship
North Carolina History

Sociology 37-39
Introduction to Sociology
Educational Sociology
The Negro
The Community
Social Problems
The Family
Crime and its Social Treatment
Public Welfare
Play and Recreation
Extra-Curricular Activities in the School Community

(For courses offered at State College, Raleigh, N. C., see pp. 41-43.)

CHANGES TO BE NOTED BY THOSE INTERESTED IN CERTIFICATION CREDIT—PAGES 6, 7, 8, 16

Since the printing of this catalog, the State Department of Public Instruction has adopted regulations affecting certain statements made herein. The dates for reporting credits to be applied on teachers' certificates have been changed to September 1st and June 1st. A detailed statement of these regulations affecting in-service teachers may be obtained from the State Department in Raleigh. The following is a brief summary as given by that Department:

1. Certificate credit will not be allowed for more than twelve semester hours earned through extension (extension class, or correspondence, or a combination of the two) from October 1, 1935, to August 31, 1936, *with not more than eight semester hours of this credit between October 1, 1935, and June 1, 1936.*

2. After 1935-36, certificate credit will not be allowed for more than eight semester hours earned through extension (extension class, or correspondence, or a combination of the two) from September 1st to June 1st and not more than twelve semester hours between September 1st and August 31st.

3. Certificate credit will not be allowed for more than twenty semester hours earned in all ways, extension class, correspondence, summer school and regular session, between October 1, 1935, and August 31, 1936, and after August 31, 1936, not more than twenty semester hours will be allowed from all sources between September 1st and August 31st of the following year.

4. Certificate credit will not be allowed for more than forty percent of a raise (twelve semester hours) earned through extension (extension class, or correspondence, or a combination of the two), provided any teacher would be allowed full credit for eight semester hours earned between October 1, 1935, and June 1, 1936.

A teacher in service is advised to arrange her work so that she will not complete more than one semester hour's work in any month between September 1st and June 1st. This recommendation is made to prevent neglect of regular duties.

CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION

This catalogue explains in detail the correspondence work offered at Chapel Hill by the Extension Division of the University of North Carolina. The courses offered at the State College of Agriculture and Engineering in Raleigh are listed on pages 41-43. Full information regarding these may be secured by writing to that institution.

The effectiveness of university teaching by correspondence has been clearly demonstrated. Home study enables one, in his spare time, to carry on studies in which he has a special interest, to broaden his intellectual outlook, or to make up deficiencies in his education. It is designed to give continuous educational opportunities to those who desire to learn, regardless of years or former academic accomplishments.

The advantages of individual study by means of correspondence are obvious. The student recites on every part of every lesson and receives the individual attention of the teacher in the correction of the papers he submits. Since a student is not hurried in his work, he can master the material thoroughly.

The courses listed herein may be pursued by any one who is prepared to study them with profit. Those who expect to secure credit towards a degree must, of course, satisfy the entrance and other requirements. However, those who do not desire or expect such credit are permitted to register for any course in which they have an interest. Non-credit students are given the same careful instruction as those who are candidates for a degree.

General Information

Correspondence study is simply a method of learning through the directed study of textbooks and supplementary material, writing the answers to the questions, and developing lines of thought contained in each assignment. Each assignment contains: (a) full directions for study, including references to textbooks by chapter and page; (b) suggestions and helps of the instructor; (c) questions to develop an understanding of the work done. When a student has registered for a course three assignments are sent him. He does the work outlined in the first assignment and sends his paper to the Extension Division, and then begins work on the second assignment. At the University each paper is gone over by the instructor, who carefully corrects and grades it and places on it constructive criticism and helpful suggestions for future study. It is to the student's advantage, therefore, not to send in another assignment until the previous one has been returned so that he may profit by the suggestions. Upon receipt of completed assignments, additional ones will be sent the student. While it is very desirable that the student send in work regularly, at least one assignment each week, he has the privilege of sending it in as he is able to complete it, provided he does not submit more than four assignments a week.

Credit

Unless otherwise noted, all courses offered count toward the A.B. degree. Some courses are credited toward S.B. degrees. No courses offered count toward the master's degree.

To work out a systematic plan for taking correspondence instruction toward the A.B. degree, study carefully the *Requirements for Bachelors' Degrees* found on pages 18-19. Courses marked with an asterisk (*) are given by correspondence. The other courses listed in this catalogue are elective.

The State Department of Public Instruction at Raleigh will, in accordance with their regulations, credit all courses listed in this catalogue (except those listed as non-credit courses) toward state teachers' certificates. A person who is actively engaged in teaching may not earn certification credit for more than eight semester hours of extension work between September 30 and June 30. Work in excess of this amount if carried while teaching will not be accepted by the State Department.

For credit toward a degree not more than the equivalent of one and one-half years of residence work, 45 semester hours or 67½ quarter hours, may be earned by extension. *Of this amount only 30 semester hours or 45 quarter hours may be taken by correspondence.* One-third of the total amount, 15 semester hours or 22½ quarter hours, is the maximum of correspondence work that may be completed in any twelve-month period.

Entrance Requirements

If degree credit is desired, an applicant for correspondence work must meet the University entrance requirements and be enrolled in the University. These entrance requirements state that an applicant must have at least fifteen units from an accredited high school. The high school record must be transferred to the University on a blank that will be furnished for the purpose. An applicant for advanced standing may be ranked as a sophomore, junior, or senior when credit for work taken at other colleges has been properly transferred to the University and accepted by the examining committee.

If *certification credit only* is desired, correspondence courses may be taken by any teacher who holds a Standard State Certificate. This means any certificate except the One-Year Temporary, Provisional A, and Provisional B. When working for certification credit only it is not necessary to enroll in the University. However, this is necessary when both degree and certification credit are desired. By enrolling in the University it is possible to take correspondence courses that count for both degree and certification credit.

Length of Courses

Each correspondence course has been developed by a member of the faculty so that it parallels a course given in residence in the same subject and covers an equal amount of work for which equal credit is given. Although it may vary, a correspondence course which gives two semes-

ter hours or three quarter hours credit has about sixteen assignments and one which gives three and one-third semester hours or five quarter hours credit has about twenty-seven assignments. Each assignment covers approximately two days of residence work. On such assignments a student is expected to put approximately six hours, or else sufficient time to do the work in the best possible manner. Where there are a small number of assignments in a course each assignment covers several days of residence work. The number of assignments in a course is really incidental, since the total amount of work for a unit of credit is always the same.

Transferring Credit

A record of the extension work completed towards a degree will be transferred to another institution when this request is made by the student. For its own degrees the University of North Carolina makes no distinction between credit obtained in extension and that obtained in residence, except that there is a limit to the amount of extension work that can count towards a degree. But the University cannot determine the policy of other institutions in regard to accepting towards their degrees credit for work completed in extension elsewhere. There are very few standard colleges or universities at this time, however, that do not accept credit for work completed through extension instruction in other standard colleges or universities.

The Extension Division will transfer credit to the State Department of Public Instruction to be applied toward teachers' certificates on the dates nearest the completion of the work. The State Department has requested the Division to transfer credit for this purpose at only two stated times during the year—June 30 and September 30. Unless the work is completed before October 1, credit will not be allowed by the State Department as of the July preceding but will be carried forward to the July next succeeding.

Special Notices to Teachers

School teachers with sufficient ability and experience, who are working for certification credit, may take junior and senior correspondence courses though they may be technically rated as freshmen or sophomores. Eligibility of a teacher to take such correspondence courses will be decided by the head of the department and the dean of the school in which the subject is given.

Teachers who need *professional courses* must be sure to choose them in their own professional field. For instance, a primary teacher should not take a course in high school methods. If courses for *professional credit* are needed, this should be indicated on the application blank printed at the end of this catalogue.

Teachers who fail to complete the equivalent of one summer school unit of work while in summer school may finish the unit by extension.

The State Department of Public Instruction has adopted the following regulations regarding correspondence instruction for teachers:

No limitation is placed upon the amount of extension credit which may be applied toward raising a teacher's certificate from one class to another. Certain particular work is prescribed for each certificate. It is assumed the applicant will offer the necessary prescribed work. For each certificate for teaching in the elementary grades about 50 per cent of the work is elective. Roughly 20 per cent of the prescribed work is professional. The amount of professional credit which may be applied toward raising a certificate shall not exceed 50 per cent of the total credit necessary for a raise, with 33-1/3 per cent as the desirable amount.

The *original* requirements for administrative and supervisory certificates may not be met through extension. These certificates include the Superintendent's, High School Principal's, Elementary School Principal's, and Supervisor's. Those who already hold these certificates may secure the necessary renewal credit through extension.

The maximum credit a teacher may earn during the school year if and while employed as a regular full time teacher shall not exceed 8 semester hours. This would include extension class work, correspondence study instruction, and work taken in residence where such would be possible. Work in excess of this amount if carried while teaching will not be accepted by the State Department.

Requirements for Teachers' Certificates*

As a rule, teachers should select their work in accordance with the following requirements, as set forth by the State Department of Public Instruction:

High School Teachers' Certificates Issued as of July 1, 1931, and Thereafter

Graduation from a standard four year college is assumed. With that understanding, the requirements are as follows:

I. The professional requirements common to all certificates shall be:
- †1. Educational Psychology ..... 2 semester hours
- 2. Principles of High School Teaching
  or
  Problems in Secondary Education ..... 2 semester hours
- **3. Materials and Methods ..... 2 semester hours
- ‡4. Observation and Directed Teaching
  (one or both fields) ..... 3 semester hours
- 5. Electives ..... 9 semester hours

II. The subject matter requirements for the teaching of any subject shall be:
- 1. For English ..... 24 semester hours
  This shall include:
  - a. Grammar, Composition, and Rhetoric
  - b. American Literature
  - c. English Literature

NOTE: It is recommended that each applicant present credit for at least six semester hours in each subdivision of English shown above with a total of not less than 30 semester hours in English.

NOTE: Students interested in fulfilling the requirements for a college degree should refer to pages 18-19.

** Credit for Materials and Methods required only in one subject.

† General Psychology will not be accepted as a part of the professional work on any certificate.

‡ If all requirements except Observation and Directed Teaching are met, the Class B Certificate will be issued. The Class A Certificate may be issued whenever the applicant has had one year of successful teaching experience. It is understood that this teaching will have been done under the joint supervision of the head of the Education Department of the institution from which the student graduated and the superintendent of the school in which the applicant taught.

NOTE: In the Observation and Directed Teaching one shall have had not fewer than thirty hours of actual class teaching or not fewer than thirty full class exercises.

2. For French ..... 18 semester hours

This is based on two units of entrance credit in French. If no entrance credit is presented, the applicant must have 24 semester hours, or 18 hours in addition to Elementary French.

The requirements for certification in any other modern foreign language will be the same as to entrance and college credits as for the teaching of French.

NOTE: It is recommended that the applicant have from 6 to 12 semester hours more credit in the Language to be taught than that represented by the minimum.

3. For History ..... 24 semester hours

This shall include:

a. Ancient and Mediæval
b. Modern European
c. United States } ..... 12 semester hours

d. Political Science or Government ..... 3 semester hours

e. Electives from:

(1) Economics
(2) Sociology
(3) North Carolina History
(4) From a, b, c, and d above ..... 9 semester hours

NOTE: It is recommended that the History teacher have not less than 36 semester hours, including 24 semester hours in History, with at least 6 semester hours in each subdivision in that subject, with 6 hours in Political Science and Economics and with 6 semester hours in Geography.

4. For Latin ..... 24 semester hours

This is based on two units of entrance credit in Latin, to be reduced six semester hours for each additional unit of entrance credit.

NOTE: It is recommended that each applicant for a Latin certificate show credit for at least three years of college work in that subject.

5 For Mathematics ..... 15 semester hours

NOTE: Additional credit for six semester hours in Mathematics would be desirable.

6. For Science ..... 30 semester hours

This shall include:

a. Biology
b. Chemistry
c. Physics
d. Geography or Geology

A certificate to teach any one science, e.g., Biology, may be secured by presenting credit for a minimum of 30 semester hours in science, including a major in the particular science in which the certificate is desired.

NOTE: It is recommended that the science teacher have credit for at least 36 semester hours, with not less than six semester hours in any one of the four sciences.

7. For Commerce ..... 36 semester hours

This shall include:

a. Stenography
b. Typewriting
c. Bookkeeping
d. Office Management

8. For Fine Arts ..... 30 semester hours
9. For Industrial Arts ..... 30 semester hours
10. For Public School Music ..... 30 semester hours

To be qualified to teach Public School Music, as a part of the 45 semester hours or in addition to it, the applicant must have credit for at least three semester hours in Voice. A certificate to teach instrumental music such as Piano or Violin will not require credit in Voice.

11. For Physical Education ..... 30 semester hours
(Theoretical and Practical)
12. For Home Economics ..... 45 semester hours

This shall include:

a. Chemistry ..... 6 semester hours

b. Physiology and Bacteriology.....6 semester hours
c. Physics .....2 semester hours
d. Art .....3 semester hours
e. Foods .....8 semester hours
f. Clothing .....8 semester hours
g. Management
Home Management
Home Management Residence } .....6 semester hours
Economics of the Home
h. Family
Child Development
Family and Social Relationships } .....6 semester hours
Health and Home Nursing

A certificate to teach foods only will be issued if applicant has credit for 18 semester hours in foods and has met all requirements for the Home Economics Certificate except in Art and Design and Clothing. A certificate to teach Clothing only will be issued if applicant has credit for fifteen semester hours in Clothing and has met all requirements for the Home Economics Certificate except that in Foods.

13. For Agriculture

This certificate will be issued on the basis of a B.S. Degree in Agricultural Education from a recognized school, provided the applicant meets the Professional Requirements as outlined for the teachers of other high school subjects.

VALIDITY AND RENEWAL. The Class A Certificate will be valid for five years from date of qualifying for the certificate. At the termination of the five year period, it may be renewed for five years by presenting credit for six semester hours of graduate work in the field of the certificate earned during the five year period. Thereafter, it may be renewed for five-year periods by showing two years of successful teaching experience within the period or by presenting six semester hours of work earned during the period.

CERTIFICATES FOR TEACHING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

I. Grammar Grade or Primary Certificate Class A

These certificates issued as of July 1, 1931, will require graduation from a standard four year college, or the equivalent, embracing not less than 120 semester hours. As a part of the work, or in addition to it, the applicant shall have:

FOR PRIMARY CERTIFICATE CLASS A		FOR GRAMMAR GRADE CERTIFICATE CLASS A	
1. English	12 S.H.	1. English	12 S.H.
a. Composition	6 S.H.	a. Composition	6 S.H.
b. Children's Literature (Primary Grades)	2 S.H.	b. Children's Literature (Intermediate and Grammar Grade)	2 S.H.
c. Elective	4 S.H.	c. Elective	4 S.H.
2. American History and Citizenship	6 S.H.	2. American History and Citizenship	6 S.H.
3. Geography, including Nature Study	6 S.H.	3. Geography	6 S.H.
4. Fine and Industrial Arts This shall include: a. Drawing b. Industrial Arts c. Music	9 S.H.	4. Fine and Industrial Arts This shall include a. Drawing b. Industrial Arts c. Music	9 S.H.
5. Physical and Health Education	6 S.H.	5. Physical and Health Education	6 S.H.

This shall include a minimum of:
- a. Physical Education 2 S.H.
- b. Hygiene and Health Education 2 S.H.

6. Education 21 S.H.
This shall include:
- a. Primary Methods (Reading, Language, Numbers)
- b. Classroom Management
- c. Child Study
- d. Educational Psychology
- e. Observation and Directed Teaching

7. Electives 57 S.H.

This shall include a minimum of:
- a. Physical Education 2 S.H.
- b. Hygiene and Health Education 2 S.H.

6. Education 21 S.H.
This shall include:
- a. Grammar Grade Methods (Reading, Language, Arithmetic, Social Science)
- b. Classroom Management
- c. Child Study
- d. Educational Psychology
- e. Educational Measurements
- f. Observation and Directed Teaching

7. Electives 57 S.H.

VALIDITY AND RENEWAL. The Class A Certificate will be valid for five years from date of qualifying for the certificate. At the termination of the five year period, it may be renewed for five years by presenting credit for six semester hours of graduate work in the field of the certificate earned during the five year period. Thereafter, it may be renewed for five-year periods by showing two years of successful teaching experience within the period or by presenting six semester hours of work earned during the period.

II. Grammar Grade or Primary Certificate Class B

These certificates are issued on two bases:

A. Graduation from a standard two year normal school, from the curricula leading to teaching in the elementary school.

B. Credit for 90 semester hours, or three years of standard college work. Beginning with certificates issued as of July 1, 1931, as a part of this work, or in addition to it, the applicant shall have:

FOR PRIMARY CERTIFICATE CLASS B

1. English 12 S.H.
   - a. Composition 6 S.H.
   - b. Children's Literature 2 S.H. (Primary Grades)
   - c. Elective 4 S.H.
2. American History and Citizenship 6 S.H.
3. Geography, including Nature Study 4 S.H.
4. From the following 12 S.H. (Four must be included)
   - a. Drawing
   - b. Industrial Arts
   - c. Music
   - d. Physical Education
   - e. Hygiene and Health Education
5. Education 15 S.H.
   This shall include:
   - a. Primary Methods (Reading, Language, Numbers)

FOR GRAMMAR GRADE CERTIFICATE CLASS B

1. English 12 S.H.
   - a. Composition 6 S.H.
   - b. Children's Literature 2 S.H. (Intermediate and Grammar Grade)
   - c. Elective 4 S.H.
2. American History and Citizenship 6 S.H.
3. Geography 4 S.H.
4. From the following 12 S.H. (Four must be included)
   - a. Drawing
   - b. Industrial Arts
   - c. Music
   - d. Physical Education
   - e. Hygiene and Health Education
5. Education 15 S.H.
   This shall include:
   - a. Grammar Grade Methods (Reading, Language, Arithmetic)

b. Classroom Management
c. Child Study
d. Educational Psychology

6. Electives ..... 41 S.H.

b. Classroom Management
c. Child Study
d. Educational Psychology

6. Electives ..... 41 S.H.

NOTE: It is recommended that for each certificate not less than six semester hours be devoted to Methods; that as far as possible the electives be limited to Science (Biology and Chemistry), History, English, and Geography.

VALIDITY AND RENEWAL. These certificates are valid for five years. They may be renewed at the expiration of each five year period by securing credit for six semester hours of standard college work during each five year period. It is recommended that these renewal credits be chosen with a view of obtaining the Class A Certificate when sufficient work has been done.

III. Grammar Grade or Primary Certificate Class C

(Not issued to beginning teachers after July 1, 1934.)

These certificates issued as of July 1, 1930, will require credit of 60 semester hours or two years' standard college work. As a part of this work, or in addition to it, the applicant must have:

FOR PRIMARY CERTIFICATE CLASS C		FOR GRAMMAR GRADE CERTIFICATE CLASS C	
1. English	8 S.H.	1. English	8 S.H.
a. Composition	6 S.H.	a. Composition	6 S.H.
b. Children's Literature (Primary Grades)	2 S.H.	b. Children's Literature (Intermediate and Grammar Grade)	2 S.H.
2. American History and Citizenship	6 S.H.	2. American History and Citizenship	6 S.H.
3. Geography, including Nature Study	2 S.H.	3. Geography	2 S.H.
4. From the following (Three must be included)	8 S.H.	4. From the following (Three must be included)	8 S.H.
a. Drawing		a. Drawing	
b. Industrial Arts		b. Industrial Arts	
c. Music		c. Music	
d. Physical Education		d. Physical Education	
e. Hygiene and Health Education		e. Hygiene and Health Education	
5. Education	9 S.H.	5. Education	9 S.H.
This shall include:		This shall include:	
a. Primary Methods (Reading and Language)		a. Grammar Grade Methods (Reading and Language)	
b. Classroom Management		b. Classroom Management	
c. Child Study		c. Child Study	
6. Electives	27 S.H.	6. Electives	27 S.H.

NOTE: It is recommended that for each certificate not less than three semester hours be devoted to Methods; that as far as possible the electives be limited to Science (Biology and Chemistry), History, English, and Geography.

VALIDITY AND RENEWAL. Same requirements as for Primary and Grammar Grade B Certificates.

IV. Elementary Certificate Class A

(Not issued to beginning teachers after July 1, 1933.)

This certificate was issued on one of two bases:

A. To graduates of accredited high schools who complete the year's work as outlined for the Teacher Training Department of the high schools in this State, or

B. On credit for 30 semester hours or a year's standard college or

normal school work. As a part of this work, or in addition to it, the requirement was:

1. English Composition ..... 6 semester hours
2. American History ..... 3 semester hours
3. From the following ..... 4 semester hours
   (Two must be included)
   a. Drawing
   b. Industrial Arts
   c. Music
   d. Physical Education
   e. Hygiene and Health Education
4. Education ..... 6 semester hours
   This shall include:
   a. Special Primary Methods
      (Reading and Language)
      or
      Special Grammar Grade Methods
      (Reading and Language)
   b. Classroom Management
5. Electives ..... 11 semester hours

VALIDITY. This certificate will be valid for five years, but may not be renewed. During the five year period, it must be raised to one of higher grade, which would be at least a Primary or Grammar Grade C.

NOTE: Students interested in fulfilling the requirements for a college degree should refer to pages 18-19.

SUGGESTED COURSES FOR THOSE NOT INTERESTED IN ACADEMIC CREDIT

(See Group Study plan, p 17)

Special arrangements will be made with instructors to meet the requirements of adult students who, for various reasons, desire to continue study without securing academic or professional credit. Any mature person or group of persons, regardless of previous education, may register for any of the subjects listed in this bulletin, and the instructor will endeavor to adjust the course to the individual or group needs and interests. The following courses are suggested as being suitable for the groups indicated:

HOMEMAKERS

Investments
General Introduction to the Study of Education
Child Psychology
Book Selection for Children's Libraries
Natural Science
School Hygiene and Health Education
The Family
Play and Recreation

SOCIAL WORKERS

Educational Sociology
General Introduction to the Study of Education
School Hygiene and Health Education
North Carolina: Economic and Social
The Negro
Social Problems
The Family
Crime and its Social Treatment
Play and Recreation
Problems of Citizenship
Social Work and Public Welfare
Rural Sociology

LITERARY CLUBS

Historic Foundations of Modern Education
North Carolina History
Modern Drama
The Contemporary American Short Story
Short Story Writing
Dramatic Composition

Shakespeare
American Literature
English Literature
Foundations of Modern History
American History
History of Music
Modern French Literature
Modern Spanish Literature

COMMERCIAL GROUPS

General Economics
Credit and Banking
Accounting
Business Law
Business English
Investments
Industrial and Commercial Geography
The Government of the United States
The Governments of Europe
American State Government
Rural Economics
North Carolina: Economic and Social

CIVIC GROUPS

General Economics
General Introduction to the Study of Education
Public School Education in the South
Problems of Citizenship
Industrial and Commercial Geography
Foundations of Modern History
American History
North Carolina History
The Government of the United States
The Governments of Europe
American State Government
Rural Economics
North Carolina: Economic and Social
The Negro
Social Problems
The Family
Crime and its Social Treatment
Educational Sociology

SUGGESTED COURSES FOR GRADUATES OF HIGH SCHOOLS

I. FRESHMAN COURSES

See page 18.

II. TEACHER TRAINING

Introduction to Educational Psychology
Introduction to Study of Education
Public School Education in the South
Classroom Management
Child Psychology
All the materials and methods courses
Book Selection for Children's Libraries
All the natural science courses
Physical and Health Education
Problems of Citizenship
North Carolina History

III. MUSICAL EDUCATION

Theory of Music
History of Music
Harmony

IV. CONTINUATION EDUCATION (NOT LEADING TO A DEGREE)

The Contemporary American Short Story
Dramatic Composition
American Literature
English Literature
Foundations of Modern History
Natural Science Courses (1x, 2x)
The Government of the United States
The Governments of Europe
American State Government

Introduction to Educational Psychology
Hygiene and Health Education
Problems of Citizenship
North Carolina History
General Introduction to the Study of Education
North Carolina: Economic and Social

Fees

Unless otherwise stated, residents of North Carolina are charged a fee of seven dollars and fifty cents ($7.50) for a two semester hour or three quarter hour course and twelve dollars and fifty cents ($12.50) for a three and one-third semester hour or five quarter hour course. For non-residents the fees are ten dollars ($10.00) for the former and seventeen dollars ($17.00) for the latter, payable at the time of enrollment. No fees or parts of fees can be refunded after a course is once begun. In the event that no work has been done during the first three months and application is made within that time, a portion of the fee will be refunded, provided a good cause is given for discontinuing. A registration fee holds good for one year and five weeks only. If it is desired to continue a course not completed within that time, a renewal fee of two dollars ($2.00) for a two semester hour or three quarter hour course and three dollars ($3.00) for each three and one-third semester hour or five quarter hour course will be required in order to extend the time for six months. Only one renewal is allowed.

A certificate or diploma (9 x 12 inches, suitable to be framed) will be sent upon request to each student upon completion of a course, at a cost to the student of $1.00. All students completing courses receive free of charge a small card (3 x 5 inches) giving all necessary information concerning these completed courses.

Books and Supplies

Textbooks are purchased by the students themselves, usually through the Extension Division. When a student has finished a course the Division will repurchase books that are in good condition if the student desires to sell them, provided the course has not been discontinued and the Division is not sufficiently stocked.

The Bureau will not be responsible for books sent in for repurchase unless a three-cent envelope containing a letter giving the name of the student, address, name of the course for which the books were used, and reason for return is pasted on the package of books.

Upon application, reference books for supplementary reading may be borrowed from the University Library Extension Service at a slight expense to the student for postage and packing.

Light-weight paper suitable for typewriter or pen may be purchased from the Division. This is recommended in order to save postage.

Rules Governing Correspondence Work

1. Not more than two enrollments may be had at one time, and it is advisable to complete one course before registering for another.
2. Students may enroll for correspondence work at any time during

the year. However, it is important to register as early in the fall as possible (between September fifteenth and November first).

3. Work taken by correspondence must be completed within one year and five weeks from the date of registration or a renewal fee will be required.

4. No two semester hour or three quarter hour course may be completed in less than 30 days and no three and one-third semester hour or five quarter hour course in less than 60 days from the date the Extension Division receives the first assignment from the student.

5. Those who wish credit must take a final examination on completion of all assignments in a course. This may be taken either at the University or at home under conditions approved by the University. It should be taken no later than one month after the last assignment has been returned corrected.

6. It is desirable that students send in at least one assignment a week. Only four assignments per week are permitted in a course.

7. A subject previously taken in any institution for which either degree or certification credit has already been given cannot be taken for credit by correspondence.

8. For credit toward a degree not more than the equivalent of one and one-half years of residence work, which is 45 semester hours or 67½ quarter hours, may be earned by extension. *Only 30 semester hours or 45 quarter hours may be taken by correspondence.* One-third of the total amount, 15 semester hours or 22½ quarter hours, is the maximum of correspondence work that may be completed in any twelve-month period.

9. Correspondence work cannot be taken at the some time residence work is being taken without special permission.

10. Persons who are not bona fide residents of Chapel Hill must secure the approval of University authorities to remain in town and take correspondence courses.

11. Teachers may not take more than eight semester hours' extension work between September 30 and June 30. Work in excess of this amount if carried while teaching will not be accepted by the State Department.

12. When a student has completed a correspondence course all assignments must be returned to the Extension Division before a final grade or credit will be given.

The Honor System

Correspondence courses, like residence courses, are on the honor basis. The student body of the University has through a century of traditions developed an honor spirit and an honor system. A student who plagiarizes, copies, cheats, or in any way does dishonest work is not only denied credit for the course but is also dismissed from the University by his fellow students. Work must be honest above all other qualities. Each correspondence student is on his honor to do only honest work.

To make certain that there is no semblance of dishonor it should be an unfailing habit *never* to use the textbook or any other materials or aids when writing answers to questions.

No credit will be given for a course in case the student has been false to the pledge of honor. No refund will be made in such case.

How to Register for Correspondence Work

Read carefully all the preceding pages. Then look through the list of courses and select one or two which you need or in which you are most interested. Next fill out the application blank in the back of this bulletin; detach and mail to the University Extension Division, Chapel Hill, N. C.

Before writing to the Division be sure to fill out *every line* of the application blank. If you are a school teacher, be certain to give exact information, where called for, concerning your teacher's certificate; i.e., *kind* (whether elementary, primary, grammar grade, or high school); *class* (whether A, B, or C); and *number*.

Textbooks will not be sent unless requested on line 9 of the blank.

The Group-Study Plan

For College Credit

High school graduates and others with some college credit desiring undergraduate degree credit at the University of North Carolina may form a group for study. There should be as many as six interested in the same course. Each individual desiring credit should send his previous school record to the University, unless it is already on file here, and have it approved. Then he should send his application and fee to the Extension Division, upon the receipt of which material will be sent him. The various persons constituting the group may meet, under a local supervisor if desired, and discuss the work, but the assignments submitted for correction must be written by each individual independently of the others. In case a supervisor is secured and charges for his services, he will be paid by the group and not by the Extension Division. His duties will be to arrange a convenient meeting place, set the time for group meetings, and be present to lead the discussions and clear up difficulties which may arise. Members of the faculty at State College in Raleigh also teach correspondence courses carrying credit at that institution. If credit is desired there, or elsewhere, the authorities should be consulted to determine whether the course selected will fit into the curriculum and give the credit desired.

Without Academic Credit

Persons not interested in college credit but desiring to follow a directed plan of study for educational and cultural purposes are advised to proceed as follows: if six or more persons wish to study the same course with little expense, one member of the group should send his application and fee to the Extension Division. This will entitle that person to one set of assignments and the consideration of his papers by an instructor at the institution. (Additional sets of assignments may be secured at a nominal amount, the cost of mimeographing.)

The person enrolled may discuss the material with the group, letting the other members have the benefit of the information given and of the instructor's comments on his papers when they are returned corrected. This will be without cost to the group unless the members decide to select a local supervisor who may make a charge for his services. If the group is composed of ten or more, it is advisable for more than one person to enroll so that there will be more of the instructor's comments and suggestions for discussions. Persons need not be high school graduates in order to join the non-credit group.

Requirements for the Bachelors' Degrees

The work of the first two years is the same for all students except those in the Schools of Engineering, Applied Science, and Pharmacy. This means that they have the same choices, not that they must take identical work.

The matter below, taken from the University catalog, is inserted so that correspondence students may select their courses in line with the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, should they desire to do so. The course leading to this degree is designed to provide a general, well-rounded, liberal education.

In order to be recommended for the degree a student must pass satisfactorily and in accordance with the qualitative standard in force the work prescribed for the lower division and at least ninety (90) quarter hours in the upper division, including the prescribed subjects listed below and elective subjects in accordance with the requirements stated. In his senior year each student must also pass a comprehensive examination in the department of his major study. At least three quarters within twelve months must be spent in residence before a degree will be granted.

In his first two years the student pursues a more or less definite curriculum, according to the following plan:

Freshman Year

(1) *English 1-2-3

(2) Social Science 1-2-3

(3) Choose one from
- †Mathematics 1-2-3
- Greek 11-12-13
- Latin 11-12-13

(4) Choose one from
- *French 11-12-13
- German 11-12-13
- Greek 11-12-13
- Latin 11-12-13
- Spanish 11-12-13

(5) Choose one from
- Biology 1-2-3
- Chemistry 1-2-3
- *Geology 11-12-13

* Given by correspondence instruction.
† Mathematics c 3-c 4 will meet this requirement.

Sophomore Year

(1) *English 21-22-23

(2) Foreign Language 21-22-23 (Continuing the one chosen in the first year)

(3) Choose one from
- *Economics 31-32-33
- *Government 31-32-33
- *History 44-45-46
- *History 47-48-49
- Philosophy 21-22-23
- Sociology 31-32-33

(4) Choose one from
- Botany 41 and Zoöl. 41
- Botany 11-12-13 or 41 and 43
- Chemistry 1-2-3 or 4-5 or 31 and 41
- *Geology 11-12-13
- Physics 21-22-23
- **Psychology 21-22-23
- Mathematics 21-22-23
- Zoölogy 41 and 42

(5) One free elective—3 hours a week for the year.

Junior and Senior Years

For the purpose of providing the proper concentration for the junior and senior years the subjects of the curriculum have been grouped under four Divisions: the Division of the Humanities, the Division of Natural Science, the Division of Social Science, and the Division of Commerce. At the end of a student's second year he must choose one of the Divisions for his major work during his last two years. Having made his choice his work will be directed by the Chairman of the Division chosen. In general he will be expected to take one-third of his work in one Department, one-third in allied Departments in the same Division, and one-third elective in other Divisions. It is understood that if no program of a Division meets the needs of a student he may submit a program of his own, which he may follow if it meets with the approval of the Division chosen for his major work.

Before being eligible for a degree, a senior must pass to the satisfaction of his major department, a comprehensive examination in the subject of his major. This examination will normally be given in the winter quarter of the senior year.

NOTE: Persons interested in fulfilling the requirements for a teacher's certificate should refer to pages 8-13 inclusive.

* Given by correspondence.
** Credit only for lecture part of course.

PERSONS FOR WHOM CORRESPONDENCE COURSES ARE DESIGNED

University courses of standard grade by correspondence offer excellent opportunities to many persons who are fully qualified to pursue them profitably but who, for various reasons, are unable to attend a university. Aside from this general appeal, they are particularly helpful to the following classes:

1. College students who are unable to pursue continuous residence courses.
2. School teachers who are working for certification credit.
3. High school graduates who cannot go to college.
4. Professional and business men who wish to supplement their training.
5. The man or woman who left school early or who is too old to go to school and feels the value of broader training to make life more interesting, or who seeks to change his or her vocation.
6. Club women who wish to pursue a systematic line of study.
7. Isolated men and women who desire some interest outside of themselves—who are reaching out for mental stimulus.
8. Housekeepers and homemakers who wish to keep up with the times.
9. Ministers of the gospel laboring in remote places who wish to keep themselves informed in regard to educational matters.
10. Those in public service—in fact all who are eager for knowledge or advancement, and desire to keep abreast of the times.

COURSES OF INSTRUCTION

NOTE: Unless otherwise stated in the description of the courses, the "c" numbers are the same as in the University catalogue and also correspond to the "s" numbers in the summer school catalogue. For the complete understanding of a course, both the "a" and "b" parts should be taken. For degree credit both parts are required.

DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS AND COMMERCE

ECONOMICS

c 31-c 32-c 33. Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
GENERAL ECONOMICS. Fee, $7.50 each.
PROFESSOR EVANS. *18 assignments each.*
Sophomore Elective.
This course is planned to give a general understanding of the organization of our economic life and the fundamental principles underlying it. An analysis is made of production, distribution, and consumption, of the elements which determine value and price, with a brief introduction to money, banking and credit, monopoly, business combinations, transportation, labor problems, and economic reform.

c 35. Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
ECONOMIC HISTORY. Fee, $12.50.
PROFESSOR HEATH. *27 assignments.*
Sophomore and Junior Elective.
The purpose of this study is to lead the student through the channel of history into the field of modern economy. Our present economic system is presented as a product of evolutionary processes. Special emphasis is placed on the development of the wage system, the ebb and flow of business activity, the expansion of markets, and the growth of capital, etc., as they have manifested themselves in English and American history.

c 82. Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
CREDIT AND BANKING. Fee, $12.50.
MR. WINSLOW. *27 assignments.*
Prerequisites, Economics 31-32-33, if taken for credit.
A general study of credit and banking; analysis of the current credit and banking problems.

*COMMERCE

c 1a. No credit.
ACCOUNTING. Fee, $12.50.
PROFESSOR SHERRILL. *15 assignments.*
Study of the fundamental principles of double entry bookkeeping; books of original entry; the ledger; preparation of financial statements.

c 1b. No credit.
ACCOUNTING. Fee, $12.50.
PROFESSOR SHERRILL. *15 assignments.*
Continuation of c 1a; closing and adjusting the books; the work sheet; control accounts; the partnership.

c 91-92. Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs. each.
BUSINESS LAW. Fee, $12.50 each.
PROFESSOR HOBBS. *27 assignments c 91.*
Prerequisites, Economics 31-32-33 if taken for credit. *26 assignments c 92.*
The aim of the course is to give the student an understanding of the main principles of law that govern in the daily conduct of

* NOTE: Certain courses listed under the Department of Commerce count only toward the S.B. degree in Commerce.

business. The topics discussed are: contracts, agencies, negotiable instruments, sales, bailments, corporations, partnerships, and bankruptcy.

Allied Subjects

c 6.
BUSINESS ENGLISH.
Professor Bailey.
This course is similar to English c 51.
*Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
16 assignments.

c 51.
BUSINESS ENGLISH.
Professor Bailey.
Prerequisite, English 1-2-3.
Sophomore, junior, and senior elective.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.
A course in the vocabulary, forms, and literature of the business profession with special attention to letters of application and inquiry; routine, collection, adjustment and sales letters, business reports, and technical articles. Specimen letters are studied and criticized and actual business problems solved through written work.

c 36.
INVESTMENTS.
Professor Woosley.
No credit.
Fee, $12.50.
25 assignments.
A study of the various forms of investments with reference to their suitability for the different types of investors; the money market, its nature and the financial factors which influence the price movement of securities; elements of sound investment and methods of computing net earnings, amortization, rights, and convertibles. The aim will be to train the student so he may be able to act efficiently in a financial capacity either as a borrower or lender, as investor or trustee, or as fiscal agent of a corporation.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

c 21a.
GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF EDUCATION.
Professor McKee.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
16 assignments.
This is an orientation course in education for beginners, especially designed for school teachers, school board members, patrons, and taxpayers. The object of the course is to present to the student in non-technical language the interesting story of the rise and organization of public schools in the United States. Particular attention is given to the North Carolina school system.

c 31a-c 31b.
INTRODUCTION TO EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY.
Professor Jordan and Mrs. Jordan.
Sophomore course.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.
Education is viewed in this course as a series of changes in individual pupils. The elementary principles of educational psychology will be illustrated and studied briefly through assigned readings, experiments, and discussions.

* Persons working for the S.B. degree in Commerce should take English c 51 instead of this course.

*c 51Pa-c 51Pb. Credit, 2 semester hrs.
READING AND STUDY HABITS FOR THE PRIMARY GRADES. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
PROFESSOR MCKEE AND MRS. OLSEN. *16 assignments each.*
This course will consider the principles involved in reading, problems in beginning reading, and the various methods of teaching reading, the importance and place of oral and silent reading, word building and reading tests. Consideration is given to methods involved in developing effective study habits.

*c 52Ga. Credit, 2 semester hrs.
READING AND STUDY HABITS FOR GRAMMAR GRADES. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50.
PROFESSOR MCKEE AND MRS. OLSEN. *16 assignments.*
The aim of this course is to acquaint the student with the materials and methods of teaching reading as a means of extending the experiences of boys and girls, of stimulating good thinking, and arousing interest in a wide variety of reading activities. The chief aim is to train pupils "to translate the printed word into ideals, thoughts, and actions which make for knowledge and efficiency."

*c 54Pa. Credit, 2 semester hrs.
ARITHMETIC PRIMARY NUMBER AND PROJECTS. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
PROFESSOR MCKEE AND ASSISTANT. *16 assignments.*
This course will emphasize the development of number concept in primary grades. The place of drill; kind and amount of formal arithmetic in these grades; projects and activities as a basis for the formal number work.

*c 55Ga. Credit, 2 semester hrs.
ARITHMETIC FOR THE GRAMMAR GRADES. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
PROFESSOR MCKEE AND ASSISTANT. *16 assignments.*
Careful study of the investigations revealing the core of mathematical facts necessary for all people to acquire; also methods of teaching these facts thoroughly. Special attention is given to the application of arithmetic to different situations.

*c 55Gb. Credit, 2 semester hrs.
LANGUAGE AND COMPOSITION FOR GRAMMAR GRADES. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
PROFESSOR MCKEE AND MRS. OLSEN. *16 assignments.*
A study of means of speaking effectively and pleasingly. Written language, obtaining good form through genuine use, including composition, writing, and spelling. A study will be made of (a) various vocabulary studies, (b) how to encourage pupils to make use of words learned, and (c) how best to measure the results of teaching.

c 71a-c 71b. Credit, 2 semester hrs.
EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
PROFESSOR JORDAN. Fee, $7.50 each.
Prerequisites, Educ. 31a-31b, or Psychology 21-22-23. *16 assignments each.*
Junior-senior course.
The critical consideration of different topics, such as original na-

* These courses were designed to give credit toward the degree of A.B. in Elementary Education, which degree is no longer offered at Chapel Hill. Work in elementary education is now given at the Woman's College in Greensboro and those interested in degree credit in that field should consult the authorities there about their courses. These courses give certification credit in the elementary field.

ture of man, heredity versus environment, kinds of learning and factors influencing learning, individual differences, mental hygiene, mental measurement.

*c 98a-c 98b.
GENERAL METHODS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION.
PROFESSOR KING.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each. Fee, $7.50 each. *16 assignments each.*

The first half of this course deals with the aims of high school teaching and the outcomes of learning. In the second half an evaluation of the various techniques and methods of instruction commonly used in high schools is attempted. The course includes a limited amount of observation in the training school. (These courses give certification credit only on high school teachers' certificates.)

*c 99a-c 99b.
PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.
PROFESSOR KING.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each. Fee, $7.50. *16 assignments each.*

A study of the American high school, its evolution, organization, administration, functions, and problems. Special emphasis will be laid on the public high school in North Carolina. This course is designed especially to meet the needs of those students who are looking toward teaching positions and principalships in secondary schools. (These courses give certification credit only on high school teachers' certificates.)

c 101a-c 101b.
INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.
PROFESSOR HOWARD.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each. Fee, $7.50 each. *16 assignments each.*

This course will consider the most important problems of school administration, especially as these problems bear on the success of the teacher's work. Students without teaching experience, or teachers without a knowledge of administrative problems, should not register for the more specialized courses in the field of administration until after completing this course.
(This course is suitable for renewing principals', supervisors', and superintendents' certificates, in addition to giving credit on advanced teachers' certificates.)

c 102a-c 102b.
THE PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP.
PROFESSOR TRABUE AND MR. HARTSELL.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each. Fee, $7.50 each. *16 assignments each.*

The first half of this course considers those problems of the public school principal that have to do with the organization and administration of a school, and with the supervision of the school plant and equipment. The second part concerns those problems of the public school principal that have to do with the improvement of instruction and of the course of study. Experience in teaching and Education 102a, or its equivalent, are prerequisites to this course.
(Not open to holders of Elementary or C Grade certificates.)

* Those who have taken the course listed as c 2 or c 51a-b in previous years are not eligible to take c 99a-b, and those who have taken c 3 or c 52a-b are not eligible to take c 98a-b.

c 104a-c 104b.
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT.
PROFESSOR TRABUE AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

A course for teachers on the organization and direction of activities in the classroom as distinguished from the administration of an entire school. Class routine, lesson planning, conduct of the recitation, and extra-curricular activities will be included. (Not open to holders of Elementary or C Grade certificates.)

c 141.
PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH.
PROFESSOR KNIGHT AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
25 assignments.

This course gives a historical survey of public school education in the southern states with special attention to its development in organization, administration, and supervision since 1876. Present-day questions in rural education are studied in the light of their historical development, and attention is given to the educational reorganization needed for the proper solution of the new rural life problems.

c 142a-c 142b.
HISTORIC FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EDUCATION.
PROFESSOR KNIGHT AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

This course traces the development of some of the more important educational problems of modern times as they have been affected by the social and political facts of history, by the contributions of the leading educational theorists, and by institutional practice. It deals with the growth of national systems of education, and especially with the extension of popular education in the United States.

c 143a-c 143b.
PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.
PROFESSOR KNIGHT AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

Junior and senior elective.

The purpose of this course is to present the evolution of the educational practices and institutions of the United States. The elementary school, the secondary school, and the institutions of higher learning will be traced through (a) the period of transplanting of European institutions; (b) the period of modification of institutional life to meet new conditions; and (c) the period of development of an educational system of free common schools, high schools, state universities, and technical schools in harmony with the political and social ideals and institutions of America.

c 144.
RURAL EDUCATION.
PROFESSOR KNIGHT AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

This course is planned for teachers and prospective teachers and principals of rural or village schools, county superintendents, and supervisors. Consideration is given to the principal problems of rural education in the United States with special emphasis on conditions in North Carolina. Attention is given to importance and condition of the rural school, and to plans for improving

rural education. The curriculum, problems of support, administration, health, recreation, the county unit plan, and consolidation and transportation will be studied.

c 160. CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION.
PROFESSOR MCKEE AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

The construction and organization of the elementary school curriculum when based upon human needs. Includes consideration of the teacher's function in curriculum construction, objectives of the school subjects, sources of curricular material and criteria for evaluating it, selection and organization of the pupil-activities through which the objectives may be obtained.

c 164a-c 164b. TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.
PROFESSOR TRABUE AND MR. HARTSELL.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

Education c164a is designed for those teachers who have not had any previous instruction in measurements and statistics. The theory of educational measurements will be developed from discussion of specific measuring scales. Emphasis will be placed upon sane interpretations of the results of testing and upon a reasonable program looking to the improvement of small school systems.

This course consists of the practical application of the principles discussed in c 164a. The work will include (1) the actual giving of certain specified tests to a group of at least 35 pupils in a classroom, and (2) the interpretation and use of the resulting scores in the improvement of instruction in the classroom studied. Test blanks and supplies for this work may be purchased directly from the publishers or they will be supplied at cost by the Extension Division. (Principals desiring certification credit for Ed. c 164a or c 164b must take Ed. c 102 a-b also).

c 171(el) a-c 171(el) b. THE PSYCHOLOGY OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.
PROFESSOR MCKEE AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

The psychological processes involved in the learning of reading, writing, arithmetic, history, and geography. Application of the laws of learning is made to the arrangement of material within each subject.

c 171(ch) a-c 171(ch) b. CHILD PSYCHOLOGY.
PROFESSOR JORDAN AND MRS. JORDAN.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

The first part of this course, c 171(ch) a, includes a study of children from 3 years of age, the pre-school period, to about 12 years. The latter part, c 171(ch) b, considers the period from then until about 18 years. There are lessons on physical development and hygiene, mental development and hygiene, behavior problems of children, and the problem child.

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

c 1-c 2-c 3.
FRESHMAN ENGLISH.
PROFESSOR ADAMS.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.*
16 assignments each.

English c 1 consists of intensive reading of prose selections, constant written compositions and progressive exercises, with supplementary exercises where needed. The course has for its object the mastery of the sentence and the relation of sentence structure to paragraph structure. There are further readings and exercises in English c 2 with attention centered upon the paragraph and its place in the longer essay. Word study and vocabulary building are integral parts of the course. English c 3 is devoted to a study of the essay as a prose form; composition centers upon the writing of longer essays, letters, and expositions. Extensive reading is introduced and an approach to the problems of the study of literature is undertaken.

c 6.
ENGLISH OF COMMERCE.
(Business English.)
(See description of this course listed under Department of Economics and Commerce.)

c 9.
INTRODUCTION TO THE SHORT-STORY.
PROFESSOR BAILEY.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
15 assignments.

An analysis of numerous short story materials and techniques. Introductory to English c 54.

c 11.
THE TEACHING OF LITERATURE.
PROFESSOR HOWELL AND MRS. OLSEN.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

This course deals with material used in both the first- and second-year high school course in literature. It will be handled in the same manner as English c 11a.

NOTE: Credit will not be allowed for both English c 11a and English c 11.

c 11a.
THE TEACHING OF LITERATURE.
PROFESSOR HOWELL AND MRS. OLSEN.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
16 assignments.

This course will attempt to acquaint the teacher of English with the material to be used in the first-year high school course in literature. The teaching of composition will not be taken up directly. Stress will be placed on backgrounds, word-study, and content of the literature taken up rather than on methods of teaching.

c 21-c 22.
SOPHOMORE ENGLISH.
PROFESSOR BAILEY.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $12.50 each.
26 assignments, c 21.
25 assignments, c 22.

English c 21 is designed to acquaint the student with selected pieces of English literature, considered as types but in relation-

* Revision fee, $2.00 additional, each course.

ship with the life and thought of their time. The selections are drawn from the period 1500-1780.
English c 22 is based on more recent work in English and American literature.

c 50. SHAKESPEARE.
PROFESSOR BOND.
Sophomore, junior, and senior elective.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.
A study of Shakespeare's plays. About twenty representative comedies, tragedies, and histories will be studied.

c 51. ENGLISH OF COMMERCE. (Business English.) (See description of this course listed under Department of Economics and Commerce.)

c 54. THE SHORT STORY.
MR. WILSON.
Junior and senior elective.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
25 assignments.
A composition course designed primarily to offer to students an opportunity for short story writing and to familiarize them with the form. The work of various European and American authors will be studied.

NOTE: Those who have not had a course equivalent to English c 9 are advised to take that course first. Those who have taken the course listed as English c 7 in previous years are not eligible to take English c 54.

c 55a-c 55b. DRAMATIC COMPOSITION.
PROFESSOR BAILEY.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.
English c 55a is a study of the one-act play as a form of literary and dramatic expression. Plays by representative authors will be read and analyzed for their expression of some phase of life and for their stage effectiveness. Considerable attention will be devoted to technique. This course may be taken independently of c 55b.
English c 55b is a course in the technique of writing the one-act play. The student is expected to manifest some creative power and during the course to finish a creditable one-act play. The instructor provides analysis and criticism of the ideas submitted, of the scenarios, and of each of the three versions of the student's play as it is being written and re-written.

c 81. AMERICAN LITERATURE.
PROFESSOR ADAMS.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.
A study of the literature of the colonial and revolutionary periods and of the early nineteenth century through Hawthorne and Poe.

c 91. THE NINETEENTH-CENTURY NOVEL.
PROFESSOR BAILEY.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
25 assignments.
A study of the English novel in the nineteenth century. Special attention is given to the works of Jane Austin, Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, Charlotte Brontë, and George Eliot.

c 141.
ENGLISH LITERATURE.
1780-1830.
PROFESSOR HUDSON.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

A course in the literature of the English Romantic Period, the purpose of which is to acquaint the student with the best thought and feeling of the time. Especial attention is given to the greater poets, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Scott, Byron, Shelley, and Keats.

c 162a-c 162b.
MODERN DRAMA.
PROFESSOR OLSEN AND MRS. OLSEN.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
15 assignments each.

The main purpose of this course is to give the student a general acquaintance with the chief tendencies of the English and continental drama of the past thirty years. The plays upon which the lesson assignments are based are printed in Dickinson's *Chief Contemporary Dramatists* (First Series).

DEPARTMENT OF GEOLOGY

c 11-12-13.
INTRODUCTORY EARTH SCIENCE.
PROFESSOR PROUTY.
Credit, 2 2/3 semester hrs. or 4 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
Lab. fee, $1.00 each.
18 assignments each.

This is an introductory course in general geology and geography. c 11 deals with dynamical geology, c 12 with historical geology, and c 13 with general geography. This is one of the optional double science courses offered for freshmen in Liberal Arts College and as a general sophomore elective. Laboratory materials used will be furnished by the Extension Division.

c 14.
PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.
PROFESSOR MACCARTHY.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

Principles of physical geography, with special reference to the North American Continent.

c 15a-c 15b.
PRINCIPLES OF GEOGRAPHY.
PROFESSOR EMORY.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

The interrelationship of man and his geographic environment. The geographic factors, particularly climate, are discussed in relation to their influence on the activities of man. Illustrative material is so chosen as to give the student a comprehensive world view. A first course in college geography.

c 41-42.
INTRODUCTION TO GENERAL GEOLOGY.
PROFESSOR PROUTY.
Credit, 4 semester hrs. or 6 quarter hrs. each.
Fee $12.50 each.
Lab. fee, $1.00 each.
27 assignments each.

Sophomore, junior and senior electives.

c 41. Dynamical Geology. This course deals with the physical and dynamical geology of the earth. The composition, structure, and physical changes of the earth are studied as well as the

natural processes that are at work modifying both the face of the earth and the deeper crust.

c 42. Historical Geology. A broad study of the geological history of the earth and its inhabitants, as revealed chiefly in earth records. A scientific and cultural course. Laboratory materials used in these courses will be furnished by the Extension Division.

c 51-c 52.
INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY.
PROFESSOR EMORY.
Junior and senior elective.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50 each.
26 assignments each.

The course deals with man's interaction with his varying environment in the development of industries, and with the geographic conditions of different countries as giving rise to commerce.

DEPARTMENT OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

c 3.
GERMAN: INTERMEDIATE COURSE.
PROFESSOR METZENTHIN.
Freshman and sophomore elective.
Prerequisites, German 1-2.
Translation, sight reading, composition grammar.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

c 21.
ADVANCED GERMAN. (Introduction to the history of German literature.)
PROFESSOR METZENTHIN.
Sophomore, junior, and senior elective.
Prerequisites, German 3-4 or one year of college German.
Lessing: *Minna von Barnhelm;* Schiller: *Die Jungfrau von Orleans.*
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT

HISTORY

c 1-c 2-c 3.
FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN HISTORY.
PROFESSOR PEGG.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments, c 1, c 2.
17 assignments, c 3.

The purpose of History c 1 is to give the student an understanding of the main movements and events in the history of Europe from the beginning of overseas expansion to the eve of the French Revolution. The emphasis of the course will be on political, economic, and cultural developments. History c 2 brings the story to the middle of the nineteenth century. History c 3 covers the period from the middle of the last century to the present.

c 44-c 45-c 46.
ENGLISH HISTORY.
PROFESSOR J. C. RUSSELL.
Sophomore Elective.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments, c 44.
19 assignments, c 45.
17 assignments, c 46.

The purpose of this course is to convey a good working knowl-

edge of English history and broaden it into a survey of the part the Anglo-Saxon race has played in world history. The first part considers early times to the Lancestrian Revolution (1399), the second covers the period 1399 to the end of the Stuart Period (1714) and the last concerns the period 1714 to the present.

c 47-c 48-c 49. Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
AMERICAN HISTORY. Fee, $7.50 each.
PROFESSOR CECIL JOHNSON. *19 assignments, c 47.*
Sophomore elective. *18 assignments, c 48.*
17 assignments, c 49.

A general survey of the history of the United States. The first course carries the story from Columbus's discovery of America to about 1843, the second from this point to 1897 and the third covers approximately the last four decades.

GOVERNMENT

c 51. Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES. Fee, $12.50.
PROFESSOR JENKINS. *27 assignments.*

A general course dealing with the national government of the United States. Attention will be directed to the constitutional basis, the historical development, and the practical organization and operation of the institutions established for administering national affairs.

c 52. Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
THE GOVERNMENTS OF EUROPE. Fee, $12.50.
PROFESSOR ROBSON. *27 assignments.*

A course in comparative government dealing with the governments of England, France, Germany, Italy, and Russia. Particular attention will be directed to the features in the structure, operation and trends in these governments which present contrasts to those in the United States.

c 81. Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
AMERICAN STATE GOVERNMENT. Fee, $12.50.
PROFESSOR JENKINS. *27 assignments.*

A study in the principles, organization, and administrative methods of state government. In connection with the course will be a special study of the government of North Carolina.

DEPARTMENT OF LATIN

c 1x. Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
READINGS IN ROMAN LITERATURE. Fee, $12.50.
PROFESSOR HARRER. *25 assignments.*

This course is concerned with the translating of Latin, with work in vocabulary, and with a review of the principles of grammar.

c 8. Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
LATIN COMPOSITION. Fee, $12.50.
PROFESSOR SANDERS. *28 assignments.*
Freshman and sophomore elective.

The course will begin with translation into Latin of detached sentences illustrating the general principles of syntax and word or-

der; the second half will deal with continuous narrative and with questions of diction and style.

c 11. LATIN POETRY.
PROFESSOR SANDERS.
Sophomore elective.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.
Prerequisites, Latin 1-2 or equivalent.
The course comprises the reading of the Phormio of Terence and selected odes of Horace. Emphasis is put on content of literary form. Students who present four units of Latin for entrance begin with this course and may count it for credit, provided it is followed by Latin 12.

DEPARTMENT OF LIBRARY SCIENCE

c 123a-c 123b*. BOOK SELECTION FOR CHILDREN'S LIBRARIES.
PROFESSOR BEUST.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.
In general, the aim of the course is to acquaint the students with children's reading in order that they may understand the varying appeals that books make to children and thus learn to select books with consideration for the different age groups and differing backgrounds of children. The importance of literature made by children, children's literary tradition, classics, modern and traditional fairy tales, poetry, nursery rhymes, fables and beast tales, myths.

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS

NOTE: Either Mathematics c-1-c 2, or Mathematics c 3-c 4 will meet the requirements of the freshman year but are not the exact equivalent of the courses in residence.

c 1-c 2. MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS.
PROFESSOR LASLEY.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $12.50 each.
27 assignments each.
The first course concerns a study of functions and their graphs, the limit notion, graphical treatment of rates, means, ordinates, maximum and minimum, areas, etc.—an introduction to the notions of the differential and integral calculus. Graphic solution of equations. The second deals with the solution of right and oblique triangles with applications. Logarithms and their application to computation. Solution of equations, Trigonometric analysis, complex numbers.

c 3. COLLEGE ALGEBRA.
PROFESSOR LINKER.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
29 assignments.
This course treats the quadratic equation with a detailed discussion of the nature of its roots. Graphs are especially stressed. Determinants and their properties are gone into. Other topics, such as complex numbers, partial fractions, etc., are touched upon.

* These count as courses in children's literature for certification credit.

c 4.
TRIGONOMETRY.
PROFESSOR LASLEY.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

This course concerns itself with the definitions of the trigonometric functions, their relations to each other, and the application of these functions and log tables to the solution of triangles in the plane.

DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC

c 1a-c 1b.
THEORY OF MUSIC.
MR. MILLER.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

These courses include a study of the following phases of music theory: the evolution of musical notation; modern musical notation; the theory of rhythmic notation and time-beating; the theory of musical sounds and intervals; scales and modes and their structure; triads; chords of the seventh; modulation; transposition; terminology.

c 14-c 15-c 16.
HARMONY.
PROFESSOR HAYDON.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
18 assignments, c 14.
16 assignments, c 15.
17 assignments, c 16.

Music c 14 is a beginner's course in elementary harmony; c 15 includes the inversions of the common chord, the dominant seventh and its inversions, natural modulation; c 16 includes secondary sevenths, chords of the ninth, derivatives of the dominant ninth, simple suspensions.

c 24-c 25.
HISTORY OF MUSIC.
PROFESSOR MCCORKLE.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

The first course concerns primitive music, the music of the early civilized countries (particularly Egypt, Greece, and Rome), the monophonic period, and the polyphonic period up to approximately the year 1600. Music c25 begins with the classic era of the sonata and the symphony and continues to the modern era.

NATURAL SCIENCE

These courses are designed to orient the student in the world of science. The principles of the natural sciences are developed in relationship to man and the progress of civilization. Application of scientific principles in daily life are especially emphasized.

*c 1xa-c 1xb-c 2xa-c 2xb.
NATURAL SCIENCE.
PROFESSOR PRESTON.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

Natural Science c 1xa-b and Natural Science c 2xa-b, which follow, constitute a general survey of the field of science in its prac-

* These courses were designed to give credit toward the degree of A.B. in Elementary Education, which degree is no longer offered at Chapel Hill. Work in elementary education is now given at the Woman's College in Greensboro and those interested in degree credit in that field should consult the authorities there about their courses. These courses give certification credit in the elementary field.

tical applications to everyday life. Particular stress is laid on a study of the student's own environment. The course is designed to broaden the horizon and deepen the understanding of common phenomena and to furnish a background for better nature study teaching. Natural Science c 1xa-b deal more especially with the non-living world. Natural Science c2xa-b consider more especially the world of living things.

PHYSICAL HEALTH AND EDUCATION

*c 3X. SCHOOL HYGIENE AND HEALTH EDUCATION.
PROFESSOR BEARD AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
16 assignments.

The elements of normal growth, physical diagnosis, and the essentials of personal health maintenance are studied. The individual child and his environment, posture, neuro-muscular coordination, physical defects, and several phases of personal hygiene are considered. Heating, lighting, and ventilation of schoolhouses and other facts of common school life are discussed.

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

**c 21x-c 22x-c 23x. GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY.
PROFESSOR DASHIELL AND MRS. NYGARD.
Junior and senior elective.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
19 assignments, c 21x.
18 assignments, c 22x.
16 assignments, c 23x.

The aim of the course is to present the essential phenomena of psychology, and the various methods of approach. Emphasis is placed on the organic relationships within the whole field.

DEPARTMENT OF ROMANCE LANGUAGES

FRENCH

NOTE: Candidates for degree credit at the University must obtain permission of the head of the Department of Romance Languages to have these courses counted toward their degrees.

c 4. COMPOSITION AND READING—ADVANCED.
PROFESSOR LYONS.
Prerequisites, French 1, 2, and 3 in residence or one year of college French.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

The objects of this course are: (1) to enable the student to read standard French fluently and easily in preparation for the courses in literature that follow, and (2) to give the student practice in expressing his thoughts in French, thus enabling him to write the language with some degree of fluency. The assignments will consist of constant reading of the masterpieces of modern French literature with frequent compositions.

* This course was designed to give credit toward the degree of A.B. in Elementary Education, which degree is no longer offered at Chapel Hill. Work in elementary education is now given at the Woman's College in Greensboro and those interested in degree credit in that field should consult the authorities there about their courses. These courses give certification credit in the elementary field.

** Credit only for lecture part of course.

c 11-c 12-c 13.
INTERMEDIATE FRENCH.
PROFESSOR LYONS.
Prerequisites, either two years of high school or one year of college French.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
18 assignments each.

The object of these courses are: (1) to enable the student to read standard French fluently and easily in preparation for the courses in literature that follow, and (2) to give the student practice in expressing his thoughts in French, thus enabling him to write the language with some degree of fluency. The assignments will consist of constant reading of the masterpieces of modern French literature with frequent compositions.

c 21-c 22.
FRENCH LITERATURE.
PROFESSOR LYONS.
Prerequisites, French 3-4 or 11-12-13 or the equivalent.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $12.50 each.
27 assignments each.

French c21 is an introduction to the study of French literature, giving a general survey of French literature from its beginnings through the 17th century. A number of plays of Corneille, Racine, and Molière, the three great dramatists of the 17th century, will be read. French c 22 is a survey of French literature through the 18th and 19th centuries. Selected reading from the works of Voltaire, Rousseau, Beaumarchais, Chateaubriand, and Victor Hugo will be required.

c 3-c 4.
SPANISH COMPOSITION.
MR. MCKNIGHT.
Prerequisites, either two years of high school or one year of college Spanish.
Credit, 3 1-3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $12.50 each.
27 assignments each.

The object of these courses is to provide the student with an opportunity to acquire practice in writing Spanish.

c 21-c 22.
SPANISH LITERATURE.
MR. MCKNIGHT.
Prerequisites, Spanish 3-4 or 11-12-13 or the equivalent.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $12.50 each.
27 assignments, c 21.
30 assignments, c 22.

Spanish c 21 is a general survey of Spanish literature during the 16th and 17th centuries, with some reference to preceding literary movements. There is the reading of selections from Lope de Vega, Cervantes, Calderón, etc. Spanish c 22 gives a general survey of Spanish literature since the classical period, with special stress on the 19th century.

DEPARTMENT OF RURAL SOCIAL-ECONOMICS

c 51.
RURAL ECONOMICS.
PROFESSOR HOBBS.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

This is a technical course introducing the student to the subject of agricultural economics. It deals with such subjects as the scope of agricultural economics, systems of farming, farm financing, power and machinery, labor, land, tenancy, credits, marketing of farm products, price of farm products, etc. The purpose is to acquaint the student with agriculture as a business, and to introduce him to the new field of agricultural economy.

c 53. HISTORY OF AGRICULTURE.
PROFESSOR HOBBS.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

This course outlines the history of agriculture and rural life, mainly in Europe and America. From the beginning of time man has lived largely on the farm and has extracted his living out of the soil. Urbanization is a recent development. This course is designed to acquaint the student with the stages of agricultural development from the earliest recorded times to the present. It covers earliest beginnings, agriculture in Rome and Greece, later agriculture and rural conditions in Europe, and a brief history of American agriculture. It enables one to understand history better.

c 71. RURAL SOCIOLOGY.
PROFESSOR HOBBS.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

This course is an introduction to the study of rural sociology. It is based on definite text materials and therefore is generally technical in character, serving to lay a foundation for further study in this field. It deals with such subjects as rural and urban communities defined, types of rural communities, advantages and disadvantages of farm life, rural health and sanitation, rural social institutions as the home, school, church, and government.

c 101. NORTH CAROLINA: ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL.
PROFESSOR HOBBS.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

This course is designed to familiarize the student with the home state, and it is the only course of its nature offered in the United States. It is an economic and social interpretation of North Carolina, and is designed mainly for teachers whose work involves a knowledge of the state. It outlines the geographic areas of the state, their economic foundations, peculiar social conditions, problems, and constructive suggestions. It covers population, agriculture, resources, industry, and state-wide social and economic conditions.

SOCIAL SCIENCE

*c 1Xa. PROBLEMS OF CITIZENSHIP.
PROFESSOR MCKEE AND MRS. OLSEN.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
16 assignments.

The purpose of this course is to furnish the means of instruction and training in the development of those capacities and attitudes desirable in trained and creative citizens. Emphasis will be upon the interrelations of home, school, community, state, and national government.

*c 1Xb. NORTH CAROLINA HISTORY.
PROFESSOR KING.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
16 assignments.

Special attention will be given to the more important facts in the

* These courses were designed to give credit toward the degree of A.B. in Elementary Education, which degree is no longer offered at Chapel Hill. Work in elementary education is now given at the Woman's College in Greensboro and those interested in degree credit in this field should consult the authorities there about their courses. These courses give certification credit in the elementary field.

social, political, and economic development of North Carolina, and to a study of the present social and civic problems of the state.

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

c 41. INTRODUCTION TO SOCIOLOGY.
PROFESSOR BROOKS AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
Sophomore, junior, and senior elective. *28 assignments.*
Emphasis on social organs as found in primitive society, the rise of contemporary society, the forces shaping society studied through the geographical, biological, psychological, and cultural approaches; social organization and control; the elements of social theory. Brief consideration of causal factors underlying social problems. This course should precede all other work in this department.

c 42a-c 42b. SOCIAL PROBLEMS.
PROFESSOR MEYER AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.
These are general courses giving primary emphasis to positive features and institutional foundations of society. Problems of leadership, race, population, family, immigration, and other institutions are emphasized. More emphasis is given in c 42b to such pathological aspects of society as crime, poverty, and the defective.

c 161a-c 161b. THE FAMILY.
PROFESSOR BROOKS AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
15 assignments each.
The first part deals with the historic significance of the family; its place and problems today under the influence of changing social and economic conditions; some criteria of family success; the family as a field for research. In c 161b family relationships are examined in the light of psychological, sociological, legal, eugenic, educational, and economic influences with special emphasis on parent-child factors.
NOTE: In special cases and by permission, c 161b may be taken independently of c 161a, but ordinarily they should be studied in the order listed.

c 166a-c 166b. PUBLIC WELFARE.
PROFESSOR BROWN.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.
The course is an approach to the study of social work and public welfare through outlines of social study and experiment. The course will include lectures and readings on the purpose and special problems of citizenship, social pathology, child welfare, social organization, with a chapter on North Carolina as a composite field of social work and public welfare.
(Designed only for those actively interested or engaged in social work. Registrants should await word from the instructor after completion of the first assignment.)

c 168. THE COMMUNITY.
PROFESSOR BROOKS AND ASSISTANT.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
Sophomore, junior, and senior elective. *16 assignments.*
1. A sociological study, analytic, descriptive, and comparative, with emphasis on ecological factors and concrete types of com-

munity-neighborhood groupings, both urban and rural. 2. The community and social work; community organization, its origins, development, problems, and prospects. Large use will be made of recent literature in this field.

(Registrants in this course are requested to state clearly their social study background and practice, and to await word from the instructor after completion of the first assignment.)

*c 171a-c 171b.
EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY.
PROFESSOR MEYER.
Junior and senior elective.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
16 assignments each.

A course in the foundation of educational sociology, with special emphasis upon the utilization of sociology in determining the educability of the group and in correlating other institutions with the school. The social objectives for the individual, for the group, for the institutions, for school subjects, will be treated specially.

In c 171a special emphasis is placed upon original studies, researches, and practical projects in the application of the organization principles set forth in c 171a.

c 173a-c 173b.
PLAY AND RECREATION.
PROFESSOR MEYER.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs. each.
Fee, $7.50 each.
15 assignments each.

The theory of play and recreation is studied in c 173a, while in that which follows, c 173b, the practice is stressed. In c 173a the play movement is given with emphasis on the present need of play and how play is promoted. A study is made of the play instincts—hunting, fighting, and housing as illustrations. Sex and age differences are given. Classification of movements and interest forms a helpful section. The physical, mental, moral, social, and preventive values in play and recreation are studied and stressed. The text used is interesting and offers many helpful suggestions for those interested in play and recreational activities.

In c 173b the practical field of play and recreation is entered. A helpful bibliography is studied. Playground plans, equipment, and activities are suggested. Emphasis is given to game analysis and methods of game instruction. Organization work is studied. Boys' and girls' clubs, camp life as a part of the recreational program, special holiday activities, and general athletics are some of the other topics studied. Many helpful aids and suggestions are given. Plays of simple imitation, story plays, rhythmic plays, contests, goal games, tag games, team games, and plays for special occasions feature the practical work.

NOTE: Any person contemplating taking both c 173a and c 173b should take c 173a first; c 173b may follow later, but it may be taken alone. Those who took Soc. c 24 prior to September 1, 1924, may *not* take either So. c 173a or c 173b.

c 175.
EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES.
PROFESSOR MEYER.
Credit, 2 semester hrs. or 3 quarter hrs.
Fee, $7.50.
16 assignments.

Extra-curricular activities of the school are presented here with special emphasis upon high school interests. While the course gives a certain amount of theory, it is mainly practical in value.

* Not given 1935-36.

The significant topics studied include: (1) clubs; (2) student participation in school government; (3) physical education; (4) publicity in school publications; (5) commencement; (6) many miscellaneous topics—the assembly, festival days, suggestions to leaders, home room activities, programs, dramatics, point systems, and others; (7) contributions from national agencies interested in extra-curricular activities; (8) theoretical studies of institutions promoting successful programs; (9) bibliographical materials; and (10) suggestions and aids for leadership.

c 185. THE NEGRO.
DR. JOHNSON.
Junior and senior elective.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

A study of the Negro in American life. A brief survey of the historical background is followed by a detailed study of the various aspects of Negro life—economic, religious, educational, health, family, crime, literature, etc.—ending with a consideration of racial attitudes and race relations.

c 192. CRIME AND ITS SOCIAL TREATMENT.
PROFESSOR BROWN.
Junior and senior elective.
Credit, 3 1/3 semester hrs. or 5 quarter hrs.
Fee, $12.50.
27 assignments.

Nature of crime; extent of crime; causes of crime; criminal law and procedure; theories and methods of punishment; the prison system; substitutes for imprisonment; problems of prison administration; the prevention of crime.

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES OFFERED AT STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND ENGINEERING, RALEIGH, NORTH CAROLINA

Agriculture

Courses	*Credits*	*Instructor*
Agron. 101—Field Crops	3 credits	Mr. Darst
A. H. 102—Animal Nutrition	5 credits	Mr. Ruffner, Mr. Haig
Hort. 209—Vegetable Production	3 credits	Mr. Randall
Hort. 228—Home Floriculture	3 credits	Mr. Randall
Soils 270—Soil Survey	3 credits	Mr. Clevenger
Soils 310—Fertilizers	3 credits	Mr. Clevenger
Soils 320—Pedology	3 credits	Mr. Clevenger
Poul. 101—General Poultry	3 credits	Mr. Dearstyne
Poul. 303—Poultry Nutrition	3 credits	Mr. Dearstyne
Poul. 305—Poultry Diseases	3 credits	Mr. Dearstyne

Agricultural Economics—Rural Sociology

Agr. Econ. 261—Farm Management	3 credits	Mr. Forster
Agr. Econ. 268—Grades, Standards, and Inspection	3 credits	Mr. Forster
Rural Soc. 302—Rural Sociology	3 credits	Mr. Hamilton

Art

A. E. 209—Appreciation of Fine Art (Architecture)	3 credits	Mr. Paulson
A. E. 209—Appreciation of Fine Art (Paintings)	3 credits	Mr. Paulson
A. E. 209—Appreciation of Fine Art (Sculpture)	3 credits	Mr. Paulson
A. E. 206—History of Architecture	6 credits	Mr. Paulson

Chemistry

Chem. 341—The Vitamins	3 credits	Mr. Satterfield

Education

Ed. 203—Educational Psychology	3 or 6 credits	Mr. Garrison
Ed. Ex. 375—Psychology of Language	3 credits	Mr. Garrison
Ed. 371—Psychology of the Exceptional Pupil	3 credits	Mr. Garrison
Ed. 320—Vocational Guidance	3 credits	Mr. Boshart
Ed. 321—Vocational Education	3 credits	Mr. Boshart
Ed. 352—Industrial Arts for the Elementary School	3 credits	Mr. Boshart

Economics

Econ. 102—Introduction to Economics	3 credits	Mr. Green
Econ. 211—Business Law	3 credits	Mr. Green

English

Eng. 120—Business English	3 credits	Mr. Wilson
Eng. 150—History and Principles of Journalism	3 credits	Mr. Wynn
Eng. 221—Survey of American Literature	3 or 6 credits	Mr. Ladu

Geology

Geol. 120—Physical Geology	3 credits	Mr. Stuckey
Geol. Ex. 207A—Physical Geography	3 credits	Mr. Stuckey
Geol. Ex. 207B—Physical Geography	3 credits	Mr. Stuckey

History

Hist. 101C—Economic Geography	3 credits	Mr. Bauerlein
Hist. 201—Social and Economic History of Modern Europe	3, 6 or 9 credits	Mr. Barnhardt
Hist. 209A—United States Government	3 credits	Mr. Lefler
Hist. 209B—Government	3 credits	Mr. Lefler
Hist. 302—United States History Since 1860	3 credits	Mr. Lefler
Hist. 303—History of North Carolina	3 credits	Mr. Lefler
Hist. 307A—Southern Economic and Social History	3 credits	Mr. Lefler
Hist. 307B—Southern Economic and Social History	3 credits	Mr. Lefler
Hist. 307C—Southern Economic and Social History	3 credits	Mr. Lefler

Engineering

Cer. E. 1-3A—Occurrence and Property of Clays	3 credits	Mr. Greaves-Walker
Cer. E. 208—Dryers and Drying	3 credits	Mr. Greaves-Walker
Cer. E. 213—Kilns and Burning	3 credits	Mr. Greaves-Walker
Cer. E. 208C—Setting Heavy Clay Products	3 credits	Mr. Greaves-Walker
Cer. E. 214—Pyrometry	1 credit	Mr. Greaves-Walker
Cer. E. 210A—Enamels and Enameling	3 credits	Mr. Greaves-Walker
Cer. E. 301—Refractories and Furnaces	3 credits	Mr. Greaves-Walker
M. E. 102 or 101—Engineering Drawing	6 credits	Mr. Briggs
Chem. E. 201—Industrial Chemistry	9 credits	Mr. Randolph

Practical Courses in Engineering and Mathematics

Electrical Meters	Mr. Keever
Industrial Electricity	Mr. Brown
Practical Land Surveying	Mr. Wooten
Plumbing	Mr. Geile
Practical Mathematics	Mr. Fisher

Modern Languages

M. L. 101—Elementary French	3, 6, or 9 credits	Mr. Ballenger
M. L. 103—Elementary Spanish	3, 6, or 9 credits	Mr. Ballenger
M. L. 106—Spanish Prose	3, 6, or 9 credits	Mr. Ballenger

Sociology

Soc. 101—Human Relations	2, 4, or 6 credits	Mr. Winston
Soc. 103—General Sociology	3 or 6 credits	Mr. Winston
Soc. 300—Criminology	3 credits	Mr. Winston
Soc. 301—Social Pathology	3 credits	Mr. Winston
Soc. Ex. 302—Sociology of City Life	3 credits	Mr. Winston
Soc. 310—Industrial Sociology	3 credits	Mr. Winston
Soc. Ex. 306—The Family Organization	3 credits	Mr. Winston

Zoology

Zool. Ex. 108—Heredity and Eugenics	3 credits	Mr.Bostian

For further information, write to Edward W. Ruggles, Director, College Extension Division, State College Station, Raleigh, N. C.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION SERVICES

In addition to the correspondence courses listed in this catalogue, the University of North Carolina offers, through the Extension Division, the following services to the people of the state:

Extension Class Instruction. Late afternoon, evening, and Saturday classes are organized wherever enough enrollments to cover expenses are secured. Courses of both a vocational and cultural nature are offered, with college credit, if desired.

Library Service. Reading courses, books, and reference material are loaned to individuals and groups interested in the systematic study and discussion of literary, historical, social, and other subjects. There are available about fifty outlines for study suitable for women's clubs or other groups.

Lectures. Popular and technical lectures and readings by members of the faculty are arranged for schools, clubs, and other community organizations. Lecture courses either on a particular subject or a series of topics may be obtained. Short courses and institutes are held at the University for groups interested in intensive training and instructional programs.

Dramatic Arts. Assistance is given in organization for dramatic activities, in play selection and production, and in the loan of playbooks and other library material. An annual tournament is conducted in coöperation with the Carolina Dramatic Association.

Interscholastic Activities. In coöperation with several University departments and state agencies, the Division conducts annual contests in debating, athletics, and academic subjects. A coaching school is held each summer for high school coaches and athletic directors.

Publications. The *University News Letter*, containing the results of studies made of economic and social conditions in North Carolina, is sent free to residents of the state. There are also issued annually several outlines for reading or study on such topics as current books, history, travel, etc.

For information about any of the above services, write to the UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION, Chapel Hill, N. C.

REGISTRATION BLANK FOR CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

University Extension Division
Chapel Hill, N. C.

This blank is to be filled out completely in applicant's own handwriting. It must be accompanied by check or money order to cover fee.†
In sending this application, I agree to abide by the rules and regulations of the Extension Division as set down in the catalog:

1. Name (in full)..... Age.....
(Mr., Miss, or Mrs.)
2. Present address.....
(City) (County) (State)
3. Permanent address.....
(City) (County) (State)
4. Previous education.....
5. If you have ever registered in any division of this university before, underline which division and give date: Residence term.....Summer school .....Extension class.....Correspondence.....
6. Number and subject of course desired.....
7. Kind of credit desired (mark X): Undergraduate degree credit..... Toward what degree?..... At what institution?..... If credit is desired elsewhere, have you secured the approval of the authorities? .....Certification credit.....*Professional credit. .....No credit.....Occupation.....
8. If teaching, give KIND of certificate held.....Class.....No.....
9. Do you wish to purchase the books through the Extension Division?.....

† For fees for non-residents of North Carolina, see page 15.
* Credit granted teachers for courses in education and allied subjects. See page 7.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

ADVENTURES IN READING SERIES

Current Books of 1923-1924. C. S. Love. 1924.
Current Books for 1924-1925. C. S. Love. 1925.
Current Books for 1925-1926. C. S. Love. 1926.
Current Books for 1926-1927. Russell Potter. 1927.
Current Books for 1928-1929. Russell Potter. 1929.
Current Books for 1929-1930. M. N. and R. P. Bond. 1930.
Current Books for 1930-1931. M. N. and R. P. Bond. 1931.
Current Books for 1931-1932. M. N. Bond. 1933.
Current Books for 1933. M. N. Bond. 1934.

LITERATURE: SOUTHERN, AMERICAN, FOREIGN

Contemporary Southern Literature. H. M. Jones. 1928.
Southern Literature. Addison Hibbard. 1926.
The South in Contemporary Literature. Addison Hibbard. 1930.
Recent Poetry from the South. Addison Hibbard. 1928.
Twentieth Century American Literature. M. N. Bond. 1933.
Our Heritage: A Study Through Literature of the American Tradition. J. H. Hanford. 1927.
American Literature. Addison Hibbard. 1927.
Folklore. R. S. Boggs. 1929.
Development of the Short Story: English and American. L. B. Wright. 1926.
The French Novel in English Translation. U. T. Holmes. 1930.
Contemporary Spanish Literature in English Translation. A. B. and N. B. Adams. 1929.

BIOGRAPHY

Famous Women of Yesterday and Today. C. S. Love. 1932.
Other People's Lives, First Series. C. S. Love. 1928.
Other People's Lives, Second Series. C. S. Love. 1931.
Other People's Lives, Third Series. C. S. Love. 1933.
Heroes of the American Revolution. F. M. Green. 1931.
Studies in Confederate Leadership. F. M. Green. 1931.

HISTORY

Studies in the History of North Carolina. R. D. W. Connor. 1923.
Romance of the Western Frontier. F. M. Green. 1932.
Modern Russia. E. E. and E. E. Ericson. 1932.
Studies in the History of Contemporary Europe. C. P. Higby. 1925.
South America. W. W. Pierson, Jr., and C. S. Love. 1929.
The Far East. (China, Japan, and Korea.) J. A. Robertson. 1931.

DRAMA

A Study Course in Modern Drama. (Revised Edition.) E. L. Green. 1927.
American One-Act Plays. E. T. Rockwell. 1929.
International One-Act Plays. E. T. Rockwell. 1926.
A Study of Shakespere. Russell Potter. 1926.

ART, MUSIC, SCIENCE, TRAVEL

American Artists and Southern Artists of Note. M. deB. Graves. 1929.
Art History. M. deB. Graves. 1930.
Modern French Art. Russell Potter. 1927.
Great Composers. P. J. Weaver. 1925.
Everyday Science. C. E. Preston. 1933.
Books of Travel. U. T. Holmes. 1931.

For further information write to:

THE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

CHAPEL HILL, NORTH CAROLINA